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## RESEARCH STRATEGIES TOWARD A CONCEPTION OF POSITIVE MENTAL HEALTH<sup>1</sup>

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I THINK it is fair to say that the recent shift in interest in the mental health movement away from exclusive concern with mental illness and its treatment toward greater concern with positive mental health has not been accompanied by proportionate gains in research and scientific understanding. The phrase remains more of a slogan, a rallying cry, than a scientific concept. If this is an accurate impression<sup>2</sup> and we have actually met something of an impasse in our attempts to give conceptual content to mental *health*, we ought first to try to locate some of the difficulties that the term presents to those who would work with it in a scientific framework. The initial job for this paper is thus a diagnostic and a critical one. If we can gain some perspective on what the difficulties have been, we should be in a more favorable position to examine how research may be brought to bear to advance our understanding of optimal human functioning.

### SOME CONCEPTUAL DIFFICULTIES WITH "MENTAL HEALTH"

What of the difficulties? One real if superficial obstacle may be noted and dismissed at the outset: that presented by the rather inappropriate connotations of "mental" and "health," which for historical reasons we are undoubtedly stuck with whether we like the terms or not. Neither of them would be just the choice of a scrupulous psychologist: "mental" with its echoes of an outworn dualism, or "health" with its gratuitous invocation of a medical context. But the serious trouble is not merely semantic, and revision or clarification of terminology will not suffice to resolve it.

<sup>1</sup> Revised from a paper presented to the Second Institute on Preventive Psychiatry, State University of Iowa, April 10, 1959. The author is indebted to Barbara Dohrenwend and to Lillian Robbins for a critical reading of the earlier version.

<sup>2</sup> It is certainly supported by Scott's recent reviews (1958a, 1958b) of the research literature bearing on mental health, in which there is little evidence of research attention to positive aspects.

The crux of the matter, it seem to me, is that mental health is inherently an *evaluative* concept and that science has not yet learned how to deal sure-footedly with values. To say as much is no counsel of despair; it is rather to specify the nature of the problem. Mental health is personality evaluated, measured against certain criteria that either have the status of values or are derivatives of implicit values. If we are to use the results of research on personality to clarify our conceptions of mental health, we come face to face with the more general problem of how scientific knowledge of empirical facts and relationships can be made to contribute to the clarification of values. It is just here that scientists, humanists, and theologians have traditionally parted ways in a cloud of controversy.

Values are involved, whether mental illness or positive mental health is at issue. But so long as the mental health movement was preoccupied with pathology and malfunction, it was easy for the value issues to remain implicit, since values are taken for granted when everybody agrees about them. Everyone could agree that the grosser forms of mental disease are evils to be eliminated as much as possible. A scientific psychopathology could therefore get about its difficult task of seeking a causal account of the varieties of "mental illness." (Note that once our cultural horizons are broadened beyond the reach of this value consensus, even pathology becomes problematic as value differences become explicit: how are *we* to decide whether or not a shaman's trances—or a saint's—are a sign of poor mental health? cf., Devereux, 1956.)

Habitual ways of thinking about "normality" and "adjustment," as long as they seemed to work for us, shielded us from facing the value problems that lurk in notions of positive mental health. But they no longer work. Jahoda (1958) is only the most recent of many critics of these once fashionable concepts to note that neither is at all satisfactory as a criterion of mental health. Of the various meanings of "normality" that we learned to distinguish some time ago, the one that seems closest to being value-

free—the statistical average—turns out on examination to be irrelevant for our purposes. Averageness is surely a far cry from optimal functioning, however we are to define it; and it is easy to conceive of whole populations that are sick, to a degree, mentally as well as physically. Nor, on closer examination, is the concept as value-free as it appears at first glance: a value judgment is involved in selecting the dimensions for “averaging.” Any other meaning of psychological normality than the statistical either shifts the question “What is health?” to a new terminology without getting us any closer to an answer or uncritically substitutes the cultural norms of a given time and place for more universal criteria. We have somehow to transcend cultural perspectives if there is to be much point in talking about positive mental health.

Adjustment as a criterion of mental health runs afoul of just this pitfall of culture-boundedness. Adjustment to *what*? And why *adjustment* rather than, say, autonomy and creativity? Of course, adjustment is still a perfectly good concept, in spite of the eclipse it has suffered among intellectuals in a post-McCarthy era as a result of its linkage with conformity. We will continue to need to talk about the degree to which a person has come to terms with the demands of the situations in which he finds himself. The point is, rather, that to take adjustment as our single standard for evaluating personality is to give entirely too much weight to essentially arbitrary characteristics of the person's situation, and to adopt implicitly the value position that persons *ought* to come to terms with situations as they encounter them. Inherently relative to culture and to situation, the concept of adjustment fails to give us the leverage that we need in order to transcend situational and cultural boundaries. And in the context of mental health, adjustment is a value, one that conflicts with other values to which we would give priority. Once we see it as a value—not as a value-free importation from biological, hence scientific, thinking—we perceive its insufficiency for guiding our thought and action.

Let us agree that neither normality nor adjustment—nor, I will flatly state, any other conceptual panacea—excuses us from facing a choice of values if we are to concern ourselves with mental health. How, then, are mental health values to be distinguished from other values? And how can research be brought to bear in making the distinction? These complex issues lie at the heart of our prob-

lem, and there is little sign of consensus on either of them.

There seems to be an increasing tendency to treat positive mental health as a kind of *summum bonum*, a synonym for the “good life.” When richness of life, self-actualization, and creativity as well as the more homespun virtues of honesty, faith, hope, and charity are embraced as aspects of mental health—and sometimes even *justified* by this classification—we may wonder just what is happening. Does it add to our appreciation of older values, or give us a concept that is at all workable, to regard mental health as a kind of latter-day substitute for salvation? Provisionally, it seems clear that, if mental health is to be a useful term for other than propagandistic purposes, it will have to be confined to some more restricted sense.

For the institutional psychiatrist still baffled by the treatment of gross mental disease (cf., Barton in Jahoda, 1958, pp. 111–119), there is no problem here: mental health, for his practical purposes, is the absence of flagrant mental illness. More than his colleagues treating character disorders and neuroses in clinic or private practice, he can and perhaps should leave to others the whole array of positive values beyond merely adequate functioning. But the parent, the teacher, the psychological counselor can hardly avoid concern with the positive end of the spectrum. We need guidelines to distinguish the values we would promote in the name of mental health from ones we embrace simply as citizens and people of good will. Because we are scientists, or professionals who seek their nourishment from science, we look to research for guidance. Can we find it?

Of one thing we can be sure at the outset: research is not going to solve our value problems for us, to absolve us from having to make responsible decisions. It is a commonplace that no amount of empirical knowledge about what *is* can settle the issue of what *ought* to be. Who is to convince the mystic that he ought not to mortify the flesh, because it “isn't healthy?” The choice of values involves an irreducible element of individual option; and consensus on values, to the extent that it is attainable, is catalyzed by social intercourse out of communalities in the response of human potentiality to human situations. Granted all this, psychological evidence can still be very relevant.

To the extent that there is already consensus on human values, empirical evidence, when there is

some, can tell us how to maximize the values we have selected. Research can also provide the occasion for revising existing consensus or for approaching consensus where none presently exists. Indirectly, and always in conjunction with personal choice, it furnishes grounds for re-evaluation. As research displays the causal nexus in which values are embedded, that is, we see the *cost* in terms of other values of attaining the particular goals we have set our sights upon. With increasing knowledge we should be in a better position to make choices among values in the light of the consequences that these choices entail. And, as Gardner Murphy (1958) has recently emphasized, new choices become possible as knowledge extends our conception of what is attainable.

Ideally, research can thus contribute to the identification of values, and to the clarification of choices among them. Can it help us decide which values may usefully be included in the boundaries of "mental health?" Here we are handicapped by the relatively primitive state of our science of personality. If we are to understand mental health as "personality evaluated," a well developed theory of personality might be expected to suggest boundaries of relevance. As it is, we are faced with competing perspectives among which the degree of congruence is a matter for debate, and scattered areas of reasonably well established fact following up broader reaches of clinically informed opinion.

Under these circumstances, a modest inductive approach is in order. An overview of recent research in this spirit suggests that there have been three principal strategies for gaining a research toe hold on positive mental health. These range from what amounts to frontal assault to an indirect approach that may not be regarded as dealing with mental health at all. Let us sample these presently available strategies to see what kinds of contributions we may expect of each.

#### THE FRONTAL ASSAULT

First, the frontal assault. If you want to isolate the features of a disease syndrome, you single out a series of cases that share what you believe to be the diagnostic symptoms and note what other features of history and of present status these cases have in common that distinguish them from the population at large. Pursuit of this strategy tells you whether or not your initial diagnostic hunches are fruitful; and, if they turn out to have some

validity, it provides the basis both for elaborating your conception of the syndrome and for drawing inferences about its etiology. Why not apply the same strategy to problems of mental health? The idea has considerable appeal, but I know of few examples of its actual use.

A. H. Maslow, who for some time has been asking psychologists to pay more attention to health, love, and creativity and less to deficit phenomena, tried such a direct approach in his exploratory study of self-actualizing people (1950). To get a relatively pure criterion group of people who had realized their potentialities to the fullest, he spread his net to include historical figures as well as acquaintances and notable contemporaries; his specimens included Beethoven, Lincoln, Jefferson, and Thoreau as well as Einstein and Eleanor Roosevelt. Inspection of what distinguished this remarkable group from the run of the mill suggested a number of characteristics, including: a more efficient perception of reality; acceptance of self, others, and nature for what they are; spontaneity; problem-centeredness rather than ego-centeredness; the quality of detachment, with a need for privacy; autonomy in relation to culture and environment; freshness rather than stereotypy of appreciation; openness to mystical experiences though not necessarily religious ones; identification with mankind; capacity for deep intimacy in relations with others; democratic attitudes and values; strong ethical orientation that does not confuse means with ends; philosophical rather than hostile sense of humor; creativeness.

This list of traits is certainly suggestive, and the study well serves Maslow's purpose of calling our attention dramatically to the interesting and important problems that optimal functioning poses for research. But apart from deficiencies of data and method that Maslow recognizes, we cannot be satisfied with this study as *evidence* for a self-actualizing syndrome of positive mental health. So much depends on the kind of people Maslow liked and admired enough to select for his self-actualizing group. Actualization of potentialities is a slippery concept; for, unless one assumes built-in goals of human nature on the model of Aristotle's *entelechy* (which in this context is to beg the question), human potentiality is manifold: to be a Napoleon or a Khrushchev as well as a Cellini or a Dostoevski. One may actualize oneself in many ways, and tastes as to which are preferable differ. Maslow's list,

like his selection of people, tells us more about his own values and preferences than it does about positive mental health as such.

A second illustration of the frontal assault may be found in the more rigorous program of research into excellence of human functioning that has been in progress for some time at the California Institute for Personality Assessment and Research. Barron (1954) has reported one aspect of this program in a study of the *personal soundness* of some 80 advanced male graduate students, mostly doctoral candidates in the sciences. Judgments by professors in the student's major department provided the main criterion. By way of guidance the raters were told that "all-round soundness as a person" refers to "the soundness, balance, and degree of maturity which the individual shows in his relations with other people." After a three-day assessment at the institute using a variety of procedures, the staff rated the subjects on a number of personality variables. They also made their own global ratings of the subjects' inner psychological soundness.

Barron summarizes the traits that were found to be most consistently related to personal soundness as conceived by both major professors and institute staff. They are effectiveness and organization in working toward goals, correct perception of reality, character and integrity in the ethical sense, and interpersonal and intrapersonal adjustment. Scrutiny of the subjects' personal histories led the assessment staff to the conclusion that

... psychopathology is always with us, and that soundness is a way of reacting to problems, not an absence of them. . . . High Soundness subjects are beset, like all other persons, by fears, unrealizable desires, self-condemned hates, and tensions difficult to resolve; they are *sound* largely because they bear with their anxieties, hew to a stable course, and maintain some sense of the ultimate worthwhileness of their lives. . . .

While there was a substantial core of agreement between the conceptions of soundness as reflected in the departmental ratings and in those of the assessment staff, there were also differences. According to the pattern endorsed by the departments, high stability tended to be combined with low responsiveness. Soundness as they conceived it was apparently to be achieved at some cost of spontaneity and personal warmth. The psychologists, on their part, placed a premium on some other traits besides the goal oriented ones: friendliness, lack of

affectation, tolerance, etc. Indeed, the study provides interesting insights into the values of psychologists and of science professors! Does it do more?

Barron's study at least has the advantage over Maslow's of recognizing explicitly that its central criterion variable is socially defined. From a practical standpoint, the judgments of a graduate student's major professors have a lot to do with the opportunity he will have to realize his potentialities; it is useful to make the basis of their judgments explicit, as this study does, and to uncover the psychological correlates and antecedents of earning their favorable or unfavorable regard.<sup>3</sup> The use of two sets of criterion judgments—the professors' and the psychological staff's—has the further advantage of partly escaping the limitations of reliance on the judgments of a single group. Where there is agreement between the two sets of judges, there *may* be an area of general value consensus on which a conception of mental health can begin to build. And the divergences between the sets are mutually illuminating; they foster critical reconsideration of the assumptions implicit in each, with the possibility of subsequent movement toward closer consensus.

There remain obdurate sources of ambiguity that limit the usefulness of this study for our purposes. How much did the definition of personal soundness that was offered for the judges' guidance influence them? If the definition had little influence, the judgments may be saturated with "halo effects" of general favorableness and the analysis of their correlates amount essentially to dissection of the halo. In this case, mental health has not been distinguished from other human values after all. If, on the other hand, the judgments turn out to be highly specific to the definition provided, then we face anew the problem of how to choose among alternative definitions. Clearly a complex program of research, not a single study, is required to throw light on these questions; yet even such a program would offer no guarantee of a conception of positive mental health that is dictated by the evidence.

What of the frontal assault as a strategy? Certainly, there is much to be learned by pursuing it, especially about the tacit ingredients of our conceptions of mental health. When one is in the posi-

<sup>3</sup> This rationale for personality assessment is essentially the one elaborated by Stern, Stein, and Bloom (1956).



tion to start with a well specified defining criterion, as will be true for some practical purposes, such an approach can give useful information about antecedents and correlates. We get less help here on the central problem of what criterion to employ.

A further limitation, and a major one, remains to be mentioned. There are ample grounds, some of them to be reviewed shortly, for questioning whether optimal mental health can appropriately be regarded as a unitary syndrome. The frontal assault prejudices this issue in its commitment to seek what is common to persons who function well. Perhaps it would be more fruitful to start, not with global judgments of soundness or health, but with more specific criterion measures. How these criteria are related to one another could then be explored empirically. This is a second major strategy through which research can contribute to a concept of positive mental health, and to it I turn next.

#### THE MULTIPLE CRITERION APPROACH

Among students of mental health, Marie Jahoda (1950) has developed one of the more articulate conceptions in terms of multiple criteria, and her recent survey (1958) of current mental health concepts is also conceived along these lines. In her later work, she has identified six major themes or categories of criteria in the recent theoretical literature—a literature that for the most part reflects clinical wisdom rather than systematic evidence. To list them concisely is to pass over what is probably the most valuable contribution of her monograph: her insightful commentary on distinctions and convergences in the writings of significant recent theorists of different schools. But here they are in brief: (a) attitudes toward the self, including its accessibility to consciousness, correctness of the self-concept, self-acceptance, and sense of identity; (b) growth, development, and self-actualization; (c) integration, including the balance of psychic forces, a unifying outlook on life, and resistance to stress; (d) autonomy; (e) perception of reality, including freedom from need-distortion, and empathy or social sensitivity; and (f) environmental mastery, under which she groups a number of proposed criteria in order of decreasing specificity: ability to love and to experience orgasm; adequacy in love, work, and play; adequacy in interpersonal relations; efficiency in meeting situational requirements; capacity for adaptation and adjustment; and efficiency in problem solving.

Such a list of recurrent, related, yet diverse themes reflects a degree of convergence in contemporary discussion that is heartening or disappointing according to one's expectations. Jahoda proposes in effect that we give serious consideration to each of these proposed criteria and give up the idea of settling for any single candidate, at least until much more evidence is in. After all, they have each been proposed by competent authority, and few of us would rule out any one of them as *undesirable*. How much redundancy there is in the list remains to be seen.

Jahoda would have us move from speculation to research on positive mental health by first translating the theoretical criteria into empirical indicators—test scores, *Q* sorts, rating variables, behavior in test situations, and the like. One could then study in different populations the interrelations among the several criteria and perhaps reduce the list by attention to the way they cluster empirically. And one could seek, with respect to each criterion in turn, the conditions under which mental health is acquired and maintained. If mental health as measured by different criteria turns out to share the same conditions of development and maintenance, there would be further grounds for combining or collapsing the list into a simpler one. But if different criteria yield distinctive patterns of correlates, we need to know it and to treat them separately.

Any apparent modesty in this proposal is of course grossly deceptive. True, one takes as a starting point the views of informed authorities, not abstract principles, and is prepared to be satisfied at the end with a set of partly correlated criteria, rather than a single overarching definition that generates a single dimension. But there is a wide and treacherous gap between abstractly formulated criteria and empirical indicators. The crux of the research problem lies in the finding of a finite number of satisfactory indices to represent the proposed criteria, and our experience with indices in other research situations hardly warrants optimism here. Each facet of a complex category like integration—say, unity of personal philosophy, or resistance to stress—seems all too likely to dissolve into a host of slightly correlated measures, and the attainment of a single score that validly represents a person's over-all degree of integration seems a distant goal at best. The problem may be one for factor analy-



sis, but in comparable domains the factor analysts have achieved only moderate success.

Evidence for the complexity of indexing mental health variables, but also for the promise of a multiple criterion approach, may be found in the forthcoming survey of mental health in a representative national sample, done for the Joint Commission on Mental Illness and Health by Gurin, Veroff, and their colleagues (in press) at the Michigan Survey Research Center. In this ground breaking study, randomly selected respondents throughout the country were interviewed at length concerning the satisfactions and problems they found in life. Their self-perceptions were explored, and their adjustments in marriage, in parenthood, and in the world of work. Crude indices of symptomatology were also obtained. The foregoing could then be related to the extent to which respondents were ready to seek professional help should they find themselves in difficulty, and to their actual employment of such resources.

One of the many possible illustrations of the index problem in their work concerns perception of the self, an area that corresponds to one of Jahoda's categories. The Michigan investigators had available for their analysis responses to three open-ended questions:

1. People are the same in many ways, but no two people are exactly alike. What are some of the ways in which you are different from other people?
2. If you had a son [daughter for women], how would you like him to be different from you?
3. How about your good points? What would you say were your strongest points?

It was possible to use the coded answers to these questions to derive a number of indices, among them these: perception of difference from others, admission to shortcomings, and denial of strong points. The authors sought to explore the meaning of these indices and to get at more fundamental distinctions by examining their interrelationships and their associations with other variables, following much the strategy that Jahoda would recommend. I can summarize only one small aspect of their analysis here.

Each of the three indices just named may be viewed as reflecting the acceptance or rejection of one of the three self-percept questions. As it turned out: perception of difference from others is quite unrelated to admission of shortcomings in the self, admission of shortcomings is likewise unrelated to

denial of strong points, but there is a strong relationship between perception of difference from others and denial of strong points (persons who saw themselves as different from others in some respect were much more likely to mention strong points about themselves in their initial response to the third question). A fine kettle of fish!

Actually, this pattern of relationships was predicted by the authors on the basis of the rationale that led them to include the questions in the interview. Running through all three questions is a focus on the person's ability or willingness to introspect, to look inward at the self. Introspective tendency might be expected to go with perception of differences from others and with the awareness both of strong points and of shortcomings, while the less introspective people should tend to fall on the "rejection" end of all three indices. But each question also taps certain affective or attitudinal aspects of the self-percept. As the authors point out:

To reject the idea that one is in any way different from other people not only implies a lack of introspection, but may also have implications for a negative evaluation of the self reflecting an impoverished identity. To reject the idea that one has strong points also reflects a negative self-image. Rejection of the idea that one has shortcomings, on the other hand, has obvious implications for a *positive* view of the self.

For two of the relationships between the indices, the direction of correlation that one would expect on the basis of introspective tendency runs counter to that which self-attitude by itself should produce. One might expect these contrary trends to "wash out" the relationship, and in fact just these instances yielded null correlations. The strong positive relation found between indices of perception of difference and denial of strong points, on the other hand, corresponds to parallel predictions from both supposedly underlying variables.

I have gone into this much detail because I think the foregoing analysis fairly illustrates the complexity of working with empirical indices, which seldom tap without contamination the single conceptual variable in which one is interested. Disentangling the underlying variables in their relationships is at best a complicated business, and the program laid out in principle by Jahoda is probably to be regarded as an ideal rather than as a working plan.

The Michigan survey also provides a demonstration—convincing to me—of the advantages of work-

ing with multiple criteria of mental health. For in relation to other variables the different indices enter into distinctive relationships that would be lost to sight with a less differentiated approach. Let me illustrate by quoting in part from the mental health profile of education, one of several important demographic variables employed in the study.

Two important themes run through the differential responses of persons at varying educational levels. People with more education seem to be more introspective about themselves, more concerned about the personal and interpersonal aspects of their lives, and coupled with this introspectiveness is a greater sense of well-being, of satisfaction. Their introspectiveness is reflected in the greater prevalence among the more educated . . . of: feelings of inadequacy both as a parent and as a husband or wife, the experience of "problems" in marriage, and reports of *both* shortcomings and strong points in the self. . . . They are happier—in their over-all evaluations of their current happiness, in their marriages, and in their jobs—and are more optimistic about the future than the less educated respondents. These two themes which appear so clearly in our data seem to point to a broadening of one's perspective and a raising of one's aspiration level—both of these accompanied by an increased realization of "problems," unfulfilled expectations, and a greater awareness of life satisfactions.

These differences were maintained even when income level was held constant, and therefore cannot be discounted as a mere reflection of greater material advantages. Advantages—and disadvantages—that education entails for psychological functioning become apparent as they would not had a single yardstick of mental health been applied. Features of mental health that go together in distinguishing the more educated from the less, moreover, pull apart in other demographic comparisons.

The parallelism with Jahoda's approach is closer than might superficially appear. Several of Jahoda's suggested aspects of mental health figure prominently in the Michigan study, but as rubrics or categories around which questioning was directed rather than as unified criteria. In the translation to indices, things suddenly get more complex. Fascinated by the empirical relationships revealed, the authors hardly bother with a conception of mental health. Yet they surely contribute to our understanding of the multifaceted functioning of people.

Perhaps this may be the fate of the multiple criterion strategy: to provide a map for research in the course of which the initial criteria get lost in the complexity of the relationships discovered. Yet, from the point of view of the practitioner and

professional who needs standards of human functioning and wants them to be grounded in empirical fact, the data reported by Gurin et al. can be quite relevant to the reformulation of mental health criteria. To mention one conclusion that I draw from several interrelated findings in their material: an awareness of personal problems is more properly to be regarded as an aspect of good rather than of poor mental health—an extension of Barron's observations as previously quoted.

Generally, an approach to mental health via multiple criteria has a major advantage that I have explored in more detail elsewhere (Smith, 1950): it recognizes the possibility that, in the life situations most people face, optimal functioning in terms of one criterion is likely to be attained only at the cost of some limitation in other respects. Put differently, reality enforces a choice of values. At the unfavorable extreme (one thinks of the concentration camp), it seems clear that people cannot at once be adjusted *and* integrated *and* accurate in their grasp of the presenting reality. I have suggested (1950) that human environments can perhaps themselves be evaluated by the extent to which they are compatible with jointly optimal values on several criteria.

But for all these advantages, multiple criteria offer no philosopher's stone for distinguishing mental health from other human values. Given a provisional list of criteria, research can clarify their interrelations. Decision on what to include in the list to begin with—which will partially determine the end result—would seem, however, to rest on a priori or consensual grounds external to the research logic of the multiple criterion approach.

#### FUNDAMENTAL RESEARCH IN PERSONALITY

The readiness with which multiple criteria dissolve into a multitude of empirical indices to be studied in their relationships, once the evaluative perspective becomes secondary in actual research, leads directly to the third major strategy through which research contributes to a concept of positive mental health. From one standpoint it is not a mental health strategy at all. I have in mind, of course, the main stream of research in personality, its functioning and development, pursued for the sake of understanding structure and causal relationships without any immediate concern for evaluation. Personality research becomes a source of in-

sight into positive mental health when its results can be interpreted secondarily in an evaluative framework. Since the apparently more direct research approaches, with their inherent pitfalls and ambiguities, turn out not to be so direct after all, I have little doubt that this roundabout strategy will prove the most fruitful in the long run. It has the merit of being governed by the intrinsic patternings of phenomena as they become progressively accessible to the tools of investigation. Sometimes these patternings may be relevant to the evaluative interests of mental health; often they may not. But research is likely to be more creative if it follows its own bent with a healthy opportunism, rather than being forced prematurely into an evaluative frame.

It would exceed the scope of a single paper to try to identify the strands in this central research tradition or to illustrate their contribution, actual and potential, to our thinking about positive mental health. There are naturalistic studies of individual personalities (Smith, Bruner, & White, 1956; White, 1952), with their demonstration that personal assets take many forms and are quite compatible with elements of pathology; these strongly favor a complex view of mental health in which multiple criteria stand in some sort of alternative relationship to one another. There is the long line of studies centering on the authoritarian personality (Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswik, Levinson, & Sanford, 1950), which in spite of some methodological detours have unquestionably added greatly to our thinking about the goals of personality development. There are developmental studies, and factor analytic studies, and studies of personality dynamics deriving, at long last, from some sophistication in psychoanalytic theory, with the result that this previously isolated source of insights itself stands to be refined and enriched. Just how personality research contributes to an emerging concept of positive mental health is as hard to state formally as its substance is difficult to itemize; yet its contribution has surely been substantial.

#### SYSTEMS THEORY AS A FRAME OF REFERENCE

During the course of this paper, we have looked at several paths by which research contributes to the elucidation of positive mental health: the direct assault, the multiple criterion approach, and the evaluation of fundamental research on personality.

We have found merit in each, though greatest promise in the last, to which I devoted the least attention. But I have left dangling the question posed near the outset of our inquiry: how, in the light of research, are the ingredients of mental health to be distinguished from other values?

Neither the strategy of direct assault nor that of multiple criteria turns out to give us much assistance on this problem, although the empirical relationships brought to light by research that follows either strategy may aid us in the volitional decision as to where to draw the boundaries. Both seem likely to come out with distinctions already built into the procedure of investigation, either explicitly or surreptitiously. Both are compatible with either narrower or more expanded conceptions of mental health.

At an earlier point I suggested that, if mental health is personality somehow evaluated, we are handicapped by the relatively primitive state of the science of personality. So long as personality theory must be represented by *theories* of personality (cf., Hall & Lindzey, 1957), we are in a poor position to set our boundaries according to guidelines suggested by any one of the several competitors. Here lies still another reason for the support of fundamental research in personality in the interests of mental health.

In the meantime, we do well to note some formal convergences among the various conceptualizations of personality. Most views of personality conceive it as some sort of open system with tendencies toward self-maintenance and growth in commerce with the environment. A closer look at the functional interdependencies that warrant the term *system* identifies two distinguishable though interrelated *loci* of organization, which for convenience I can label the external and the internal subsystems. The external subsystem lies in what Angyal (1941) called the biosphere and concerns the dispositions and processes underlying adaptation, as newly emphasized in the psychoanalytic "ego psychology" of Hartmann and others (cf., Gill, 1959). The internal system, on the other hand, stressed in the theories of Allport (1937) and of Murray (1938) and in the orthodox psychoanalysis of Freud, has to do with stable interrelations among the institutions and processes of personality, including the management of anxiety and tension. If we take the notion of system seriously, mental health can be identified

with the stability, resilience, and viability—in a word the system properties—of these external and internal subsystems of personality.

I do not propose to elaborate a "systems theory" of personality in more detail, as the effort would surely be premature. For present purposes, it is sufficient merely to suggest in principle that system properties can provide a referent for mental health concepts on which students of personality may eventually agree. Of course such a framework answers no empirical questions, including the crucial one for students of positive mental health as to the relationship between positive mental health values (e.g., growth, differentiation, and autonomy as system properties) and resistance to mental illness under stress (viability and resilience). As Clausen (1956) remarks, we must eventually face this question.

The systems framework as a way of thinking ties mental health to our most general conceptions of personality in a schema that permits or, better, requires elaboration by research. It calls for the development of multiple criteria of mental health and provides a framework for sorting out many of the ones that have been proposed, in terms of internal system properties (e.g., self-attitudes and integration) and properties of the external system (e.g., perception of reality, environmental mastery). And it finds in these directional properties of personality *qua* system a natural basis for evaluation. This evaluative standpoint, which transcends culture and situation, is distinguishable, moreover, from other ethical values and is by no means all-inclusive. We may regard a Khrushchev as mentally healthy at the same time we judge him to be socially destructive; a Dostoevski may be mentally ill yet artistically creative. Mental health, thus viewed, is complex and not easily schematized. It is a cluster of values that compete with other values in the arena of personal and social choice. We will not always want to give it priority. That, I think, is as it should be.

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## TEST BURNING IN TEXAS

GWYNN NETTLER

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**B**Y a 5-1 vote the governing board of the Houston Independent School District, one of the largest in the nation, in June 1959 ordered burned the answer sheets to six sociopsychometrics administered to some 5,000 ninth graders. Four of these instruments were taken from a pilot study of the National Talent Project to be administered by the University of Pittsburgh and the American Institute for Research in 1960; the remaining instruments were added by local psychologists interested in forecasting the realization of talent and in the assessment of psychological health.

The board also instructed the assistant superintendent in charge of special services, whose office had served as repository for tests administered in other school systems within the county, to return several thousand additional answer sheets to a dozen participating districts that they might reconsider submission of these results.

The action of the Houston trustees destroyed the labors of responsible school personnel and social scientists. It countermanded the administrative decision of its own school executives to participate in such a study and challenged the thoughtfulness of all the other school officials who, at a March meeting of the County Superintendent's Association, had agreed to take part in this project guided by its own members and subsidized by the Hogg Foundation for Mental Health of the University of Texas. The board's public action, and the response of the metropolitan press, exposed a prevailing misunderstanding of the nature of a psychometric and suspicion of the good sense of psychologists.

The instruments that had been used included a Vocabulary-Information Profile Test, an Interest Blank, a High School Personality Test, a Student Information Blank that included self-evaluating items on health, a sociometric rating device, and the Youth Attitude Scales. These last measures, which contained most of the troublesome items, concern students' perceptions of themselves and their relations with their families, teachers, and peers. These scales are not part of the National

Talent Project but were adapted from questionnaires used in the 1956 Texas Cooperative Youth Study that had been administered to more than 13,000 children in 169 schools throughout the state without parental objection.<sup>1</sup>

The Houston test burning came as a result of a few telephone calls (no one knows how many) from parents complaining, at the outset, to two of the seven trustees concerning the content and purpose of the tests. The metropolitan press was alerted and published stories in advance of the school board meeting promising a ruckus (board meetings are televised) under such headlines as PARENTS PROTEST TEST QUESTIONS, PARENTS STILL BOILING OVER THOSE "TALENT HUNT" QUESTIONS, and DR. MC-FARLAND [the superintendent] FACES TOUGH MONDAY NIGHT.

According to newspaper accounts parents were objecting to having their children respond to such items as:

I enjoy soaking in the bathtub.

A girl who gets into trouble on a date has no one to blame but herself.

If you don't drink in our gang, they make you feel like a sissy.

Sometimes I tell dirty jokes when I would rather not.

Dad always seems too busy to pal around with me.

Houston school board members, with one exception, seconded the allegation of some parents that these and similar questions (a) could serve no useful function in a talent search or in the guidance of children ("If you can show me one iota of value to these tests," one trustee is quoted as saying, "I'll quit the board.") and that (b) such questions might undermine a child's moral character. One board member saw the tests as an additional symptom of the encroachment of "outside agencies" upon local school systems.

News items and exchanges in the letters-to-the-

<sup>1</sup> Preliminary findings of the Texas Cooperative Youth Study are reported by Bernice M. Moore and Wayne H. Holtzman, "What Texas Knows About Youth," in the *National Parent-Teacher*, September 1958, pages 22-24. A detailed report will be published in 1960 by the University of Texas Press.



editor columns continued for at least two weeks after the Houston board's decision. Within 24 hours of the televised meeting one citizen prepared an application for a court order restraining officials from burning test results only to learn that the answer sheets had been destroyed earlier in the day.

The clamor spread to the suburban Spring Branch school district where the superintendent was called upon for an explanation in a meeting at which it was announced, incidentally, that the DAR was interested in the possible subversive uses of psychological instruments and that it had prepared a list of proscribed tests. A spokesman for the antitest group also suggested that answers to some of the questions—as, for example, those on family income, family size, and home ownership—would be of value to communists. The Spring Branch board decided that, rather than destroy the answer sheets of all students for all tests, parents who objected to the inclusion of their child's responses would be given the opportunity to request deletion. As of this writing, some six weeks after this decision, 11 parents of a possible 750 have made this request.

Social scientists and interested citizens, concerned that the Houston board action not go unprotested, conferred informally to discuss measures that might effectively indicate to the community the questionable wisdom of the board's decision (Once the tests had been administered, why destroy the *results*? And why without a hearing? And why the results of *all* tests of *all* students?). As a result of these telephonic and luncheon conclaves, it was apparent that no organized civic or professional body felt justified in making further remonstrance and that, pragmatically, any continued debate with the school board and its supporters aired in the press would probably result in victory for the board with possible harmful consequences for other phases of school testing programs.

Each man will read his own lessons from the events outlined above; I should like to suggest these:

1. In general, the public relations of psychometricians is in a sad state and in need of repairs.

a. There are national bodies interested in attacking psychology and psychologists as potential instruments of state control, *ergo*, of communism.

b. We have not been able to explain the role of tests in personnel selection procedures to a wide audience.

c. The press, with few exceptions, is a dubious factor in the fair reporting of our case if only because the rationale of testing is difficult to explain to editors and reporters.

2. It seems advisable that future large-scale testing programs be preceded by a public "warm up" explaining to as broad a segment of the public as possible the purposes and methods of such research. For example, effort spent in the education of PTAs and boards of education in advance of such surveys may prevent such loss as Houston has suffered.

3. Psychologists are behaving "ethnocentrically" in assuming that their ethic is shared by the people they study. The statement of "Ethical Standards of Psychologists" carried in the June issue of the *American Psychologist* holds:

As a scientist, the psychologist believes that society will be best served when he investigates where his judgment indicates investigation is needed . . . (page 279).

The psychologist in the practice of his profession shows sensible regard for the social codes and moral expectations of the community in which he works . . . (page 279).

When the student of behavior works in a xenophobic and individualistic community, he cannot assume that his scientifically honorable intentions will be considered morally justifiable by those whom he seeks to help. Even though the scientist says, in effect, "I am studying you, and asking you these questions, for your own good," his subject may respond, "It is part of my 'good' that you desist from your intrusion of my privacy."

As with all such conflicts in ethics (in ultimate values), facts are irrelevant—and consequences too.

## PSYCHOLOGY IN SPACE—A METAPHOR<sup>1</sup>

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AMERICAN psychologists have traveled in many countries over the world, have crossed both oceans several times, and have been behind the iron curtain. Most of these visits have been brief, and some countries we have seen only from the vantage point of the bar at the airport or by listening to the people in a conference room or a night club. We know that brief visits as tourists tend nevertheless to make us *experts* on the land and the people of foreign countries, however brief our visits and biased our sources of information.

I ask that you go on such a trip with me—a space trip to the planet *Psychology*. We will touch down at a few places, have a few conversations, drink with the natives, admire their scenery, and in this way be able to do the superficial expertizing of the typical American tourist. In the interests of time we will not be able to explore very deeply but will gather large sweeping impressions like true tourists.

Our travel folders tell us that the economic geography of this planet *Psychology* is especially interesting to interdisciplinary space travelers. This world contains four major continents. They are named in turn: *Sigma*, *Lab*, *Klinikos*, and *Socio*. The inhabitants of this planet look very much alike, so we will have to be very careful in addressing the natives for fear we insult them by misplacing their places of origin and primary loyalties.

As we tour these four continents we will visit briefly a few selected countries and try to get a quick picture of their fauna, resources, politics, and power centers. As we go from one place to another we will naturally find some underdeveloped lands, some places that are even deliciously dangerous, and of course we may expect certain difficulties with some of the immigration officers who may give us trouble over our visas. Even with these expected irritations of foreign travel, I hope that you will find the trip interesting and will want

to revisit some of the out-of-the-way places again, not as tourists but as explorers.

We land first on the continent *Sigma*. This is a land of quantitative enterprise. Our guidebook shows that there are three major nations on this continent: *Statistics*, *Personnel*, and *Measurement*. The continent has tremendous natural resources, and these are exported rather freely and with great pride of craftsmanship. An embargo is placed on the best exports, however, unless the consumer countries guarantee to maintain certain standards in their use and to order the materials properly with careful advance planning.

In the big production centers we find many launching pads for cargo spaceships to travel even to other planets in the delivery of loads of tests, equations, and personnel assessment systems. The people of this continent *Sigma* seem to travel rather widely in their own continent and very often go to other continents for long periods. Some of them never return, and it is felt in the government circles that these technicians have defected or have been captured and become slaves in other continents, forced to work on local endeavors.

The government soon learned that this technique made for a good economic balance, and so visitors from the distant planet *Math* sometimes find themselves lured into traps by the fascinating and seductive charms of the local endeavors on *Sigma*. These slaves are happy and contented people, but they are carefully guarded. There are even some legendary captives about whom ballads are sung, such as Spearman, Thurstone, and Mosier.

It is not difficult to obtain a visa to enjoy the countries of *Statistics* and *Measurement*, but it is very difficult to get a work permit in either. There is a rumor that for anyone from elsewhere on the planet to get a work permit he has to be brainwashed to forget all of the Psychology he might have learned. This is not really true, although it is very easy to understand how the rumor got started on the planet. If such brainwashing were true, then of course about all these people could do would be to become department chairmen or deans.

<sup>1</sup> This article is, with minor modifications, the Presidential Address delivered to the Maryland Psychological Association in 1958.

The nation of *Personnel* has no immigration officers, and visitors often find such comforts in its pleasant climate and lush gardens that they stay for long periods. Some of them retire there—early in life. Occasionally the natives will drift across the border to *Measurement* to refreshen certain of their supplies. The economy in *Personnel* is rather an unstable one because it imports much more than it exports, and the port authorities have permitted large stocks of useless merchandise to pile up in the warehouses. In the old days the nation *Personnel* depended for its imports on its neighboring countries on the same continent *Sigma*. It has more recently found great use for imports from the continents of *Socio* and *Klinikos*. There is an occasional fear expressed that the country has run up such a debt to these sources that *Socio* and *Klinikos* may swallow it up in their axis.

Our time is too short to push back into the underdeveloped areas on this continent of *Sigma*. Also we run the risk of losing some of our tour members who may be brainwashed and become statisticians or fall into the traps of the test builders. Of course, this is just rumor, but one cannot be too careful.

We will leave our spaceship behind and take a regularly scheduled flight to the next continent on our itinerary—*Lab*. This is a very intriguing continent, made up loosely of a large number of countries or baronial states of Experimental and Theoretical Psychology. This is the oldest inhabited continent on the planet, and it takes its seniority very seriously. It has a central government that is a very strong oligarchy. A new central government palace is being planned, and the leaders are reported to be in great debate over the style of architecture to be employed. Some are demanding that it be in the classical shape of an Ivory Tower, but there is a rapidly growing faction that is holding out for a Skinner Box.

As we debark on the continent *Lab* we are met by some rather suspicious immigration officers who check our visas very carefully. Those of us who are allowed to go on further find certain delights in this place. The people are all very busy, and they seem somewhat preoccupied and detached. In one of the states we find animals dominating the activity of automated recording systems. There are large supplies of II and VIII nerves lying about. In one place we find the natives working mainly with chalk boards and reams of paper. These lat-

ter are theoreticians and are catered to as high priests.

Only a few of the natives seem much interested in the large planetary affairs. However, there is a real spirit of cohesiveness and common purpose among these indigenous people. We learn that this spirit is especially noticeable when there is a planetary congress. The representatives from this continent *Lab* prefer a separate area for their own affairs at which they cavort with glee. There is a persistent but false rumor that the continent has expressed a desire to secede from the planetary congress. The trade of this continent is very active. There is no embargo on exports, and there is a great deal of pride on the part of the artisans in the way in which they shape their products for sheer beauty, although less for utility. Imports are from other planets of *Math*, *Physics*, and *Physiology* and some from the continent *Sigma*. The younger generation here is learning to check the lists of available stock from the continents of *Socio* and *Klinikos*. When they are able to smuggle a good hypothesis in from these continents, they develop it well; but the old guard tends to frown on this smuggling activity. Some of the younger generation have been taking extended excursions into other lands, where they are always in demand; and they have no trouble getting visas and work permits wherever they go.

As we leave the brassy shores of the continent *Lab* we start out for the next continent *Klinikos*, a very great distance away. We have time to study our guidebooks, and we find that this continent is the largest one on the planet. It is made up of several nations: *Clinical*, *Counseling*, *Child*, *Developmental*, and *School Psychology*, and *Personality*. Even in these highly civilized nations, there are very large areas of undeveloped land. The natives greet us with warmth and friendship. They seem to be exceedingly interested in us as individuals, although they seem to disagree markedly in their interpretations of our behavior.

The history of this continent is particularly interesting. It has developed very rapidly, and its rate of population increase has been amazing compared to the other continents on the planet. There is some concern on the part of the other continents that its representation in the planetary congress is growing too rapidly. There are occasional inter-

planetary skirmishes that are engaged in by war lords on this continent of *Klinikos*, especially with the continent *Psyche* on the neighboring planet *Medic*. The planetary congress on *Psychology* devotes considerable time to strategy and tactics in helping this continent *Klinikos* in these battles. In recent years the production centers on *Klinikos* have dredged great stores of gold from the mines in the areas of *Hew* and *Usphus* to develop their natural resources, and in general the natives fair rather well with their conditions of life.

The boundaries between the separate states on this continent are not well marked, and often it is difficult for visitors and natives alike to tell just exactly where they are. The fields are green, and the flowers are sweet smelling, however, so getting lost here is not at all unpleasant—except possibly for a few visitors from *Lab* who come over on brief inspection trips and on occasional political skirmishes. Some of these visitors are attracted to stay, however, and they find that they can lead very productive lives here.

Our time is running out, and we have one continent left. This is the continent *Socio*. Our visit there must be very brief for us to get back on schedule. On arrival here we are met by natives in groups. They are very pleasant and helpful, but we cannot seem to learn as much about them as we would like in the short time we have. They are very busy and seem to be involved in activities that require them to work together a great deal. The continent here is rather unified, and there are no boundaries and so no problems with visas and work permits. They import freely from the other three continents and also other planets. Some of the

local continents have expressed the wish that the continent *Socio* would buy more locally. We get the impression that our traveling group is being studied rather carefully by the natives, and so we stay on our best behavior even while we are partaking of their fruits and beverages. As good space travelers, we asked the natives of *Socio* to take us to their leader. This threw them into confusion and provoked a long discussion of the meaning of the term. We concluded that they did not have any real leaders because they all disagreed on what the term means. We apologize for the necessity of our very brief stay and return to our spaceship pad to blast off for *Earth*.

As we rise slowly on our first-stage power we look back at the planet *Psychology* and see it revolving slowly as it recedes from us, much like the overall impression one gets from flying away from the island of Bermuda and looking back to see the spaces of land and waterways all at once. Our earlier impression is confirmed: that the oceans between the continents on this planet *Psychology* are far too big and, also, that the underdeveloped parts of all of the four continents stretch out in tremendous size, beckoning for explorers.

Our trip has been very brief, but like American tourists we have gathered snatches of impressions here and there and are now experts on matters pertaining to the planet we have seen and walked on so briefly. I leave it to you to judge whether the impressions I have related are all superficial ones made in the role of a typical American tourist or whether any of them gets close to reality. If your collective leg has been pulled by this travelog, just how much?

## VALUE ORIENTATIONS—AN ETHICAL DILEMMA<sup>1</sup>

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THE psychologist is being called upon today to play a new role. Society is asking him to leave his laboratory and to move out into the world to be of practical service to mankind. While the psychologist must of necessity play this new role, he does so with certain difficulties, for he must divest himself of the robes of scientific impartiality. The psychologist as a scientist limits himself to what is; his choice of field of inquiry in his quest for truth involves values which are purely personal. But as a practitioner, the psychologist must be concerned with what should be; his personal tastes now affect the lives of others and so become social values.

The point of this article is that the involvement of the psychologist's own values in the applied field creates an ethical dilemma. The dilemma exists because the psychologist as a scientist cannot know to which of mankind's brave new worlds he is to be beholden. The educational psychologist facilitates learning; but learning involves understanding, whose nature is determined only by a philosophy of education. The industrial psychologist is employed by a company which seeks a profit, and only personal choice can help him reconcile loyalty to the employer with a broader loyalty to society as it is represented by the consumer and by the fellow employee.

With the counselor and the clinician, the ethical dilemma becomes more severe, for they serve not an organization but rather a particular individual. The clinician is of service by striving to bring back one who is mentally unhealthy to psychic health, and yet his science can scarcely tell him what mental health and psychological maturity really are. The counselor provides guidance for effective living, and yet it is scarcely as a psychologist that he describes the good life.

In therapy, the psychologist works toward ends which he calls "adjustment," "self-realization," "re-

learning," etc. These words do not even approximately describe the same thing. Further, it is impossible for research to enter the breach and describe the ends of effective counseling. The therapist remembers the words of Williamson (1958) that "every choice and every action must be based upon explicit or implicit acceptance of a value" (p. 524). He recalls the admonition of Rogers (1947) that a person is always controlled by the one upon whom he is dependent. And if the therapist is experimentally minded, he finds scarcely any comfort in the findings of Rosenthal (1955) that those clients who improve in therapy tend to revise certain of their values so that they more closely resemble those of the therapist.

In the counseling interview, it does not matter whether or not the therapist is consciously aware of a value orientation. If he is aware of his value orientation, he finds it often impossible to be loyal both to his own highest values and those of the client. If he has not systematized his beliefs, the therapist will assume his own values to be self-evident, and in ignorance he will project his own values onto the client.

The dilemma of the practicing psychologist is compounded by the existence of a multiplicity of competing sets of values, for one value orientation tends to exclude all others. As we present the controversy over values, we will assemble them into four main orientations: naturalism, culturalism, humanism, and theism. We shall see that each makes a demand for loyalty, setting at the same time its own criterion or goal. We shall see also that every orientation has critics who oppose its claims.

### NATURALISM

Naturalism, the first value orientation that we shall consider, has taken several current forms. One of these is logical positivism. Insofar as positivism seeks to throw out of the cultural vocabulary all notions that are not susceptible to empirical validation, it implies a naturalistic world view by assuming that scientific laws can account for all phenomena. Since reality is limited to what is de-

<sup>1</sup> Based upon a master's thesis submitted to the Ohio State University in 1958. The author is indebted for guidance to John R. Kinzer and Collins W. Burnett of the Department of Psychology.



financed operationally, naturalism limits psychology to the study of behavior, the mind being reduced to the physiological and physical, which can be measured. The result is Behaviorism and a limited scientific vocabulary that prevents the erection of any hierarchy of values that will transcend the physical. Both Behaviorism and classical psychoanalysis in turn imply a physical hedonism by placing emphasis on physical laws which reduce the life of the mind to the needs of the body.

Today the foremost naturalist in psychology is B. F. Skinner, who is an exceedingly bold social thinker. The common theme of his social treatises is that the psychologist possesses the means of social control and must use these means effectively for the welfare of society. The function of the psychologist is then to be a behavioral engineer who manipulates behavior in such a way as to insure cultural survival. It is part of his orientation that Skinner chooses not to state values. When forced by critics to state a moral position, he took the position that the criterion for good was to be the survival value for the culture. The psychologist is permitted to do anything and everything that will allow his fellow men to keep breathing (Skinner, 1956).

Skinner's values for psychology are picturesquely stated in his utopian novel *Walden Two* (1948). Skinner's conception of paradise is a large rural colony where democracy is replaced by behavioral engineering. If the means are scientific control, the end is physical comfort, which is provided by the short work day which the elimination of cultural anachronisms permits. While a small autocracy controls life in the colony, the only technique available to it is positive reinforcement, lest members avail themselves of their one freedom, which is to leave. If at first glance man is a slave, in Skinner's view he is free from the tyranny of chance and free to take advantage of the best that cultural engineering can provide.

*Criticisms of Naturalism.* Naturalism in its many manifestations has been attacked both on ontological and on epistemological grounds. Axiology, however, is our concern in this paper, and understandably there is criticism of naturalism here too. For the sake of brevity, we will let the criticism focus upon the utopian social world of B. F. Skinner. Thus, Carl Rogers (1956) has charged that Skinner completely abandoned scientific method in *Walden Two*. In Rogers' view, Skinner confuses

what is with what should be. Science can compare two values only in terms of a criterion, or third value, which must lie outside science. When science is itself the criterion, or final value, it is miscontrol. It is "locked in the rigidity of initial choice" and "can never transcend itself to seek new goals" (p. 1062). Rogers concludes that "*Walden Two* and *Nineteen Eighty Four* are at a deep philosophical level indistinguishable" (p. 1062).

The reaction by humanist philosophy has been even more violent. Joseph Wood Krutch has written *The Measure of Man* (1954) to refute *Walden Two*. Krutch is concerned because there is no clear way of differentiating between the positivistic control of *Walden Two* and the fascist control of a Nazi labor camp. He worries because social control is passing from the hands of philosophers and theologians who are aware of moral issues into the hands of experimentalists who are less aware of the value judgments that they make and whose methods are such as to prevent others from questioning them. In Krutch's view, survival is not the ultimate aim of man. Cockroaches have survived for 250,000,000 years, but Krutch feels that it is not enough merely to exist as an animal.

A final criticism is made of *Walden Two* as a novel. It is claimed that the characters have no real personality, but are only puppets whose strings are pulled by the author for polemic purposes. Physical hedonism and literary art are indeed incompatible, for the novel can speak to the reader only by allowing him to identify with characters who do not eliminate their hardships, but surmount them even in the face of tragedy.

*Walden Two* has significance not as a novel but as a statement of those values by which Skinner seeks to give coherence to life. Skinner's credo raises the problem that psychology now comes forth and claims that it can determine the conduct of a public whose highest value seemingly is that it is free to choose for itself.

#### CULTURALISM

Just as the naturalists take their cue from the physical world and make the physiological processes of the body the final criterion in psychotherapy, so there is another group of thinkers who are oriented to man's social nature. We term this second value orientation "culturalism" and include in the group those who take their cue from the social world and who see man's problems as arising

more from his social needs than from his physical wants.

Culturalism makes loyalty to the culture from which man is derived the supreme value. In psychology, it has an explicit pronouncement in the APA's "Ethical Standards of Psychologists," which states: "The psychologist's ultimate allegiance is to society and his professional behavior should demonstrate an awareness of his social responsibilities" (1953, Paragraph 1.12-1). The APA doubtless sought for a code that would speak to its time; but we should not overlook the fact that at other times such a code might have stated that "ultimate allegiance" is to God, or in another period to the "rights of man."

Applying culturalism to the field of mental health, we find those who see wholeness only in relating to other people. We see this emphasis first in such social psychoanalysts as Adler, Sullivan, and Horney who see the cause of neurosis in isolation from other people and who see the cure in being led back to other people.

We see this emphasis secondly in those psychologists who subordinate the individual to the social through emphasis on "adjustment." Adjustment psychology carries social psychoanalysis one step further: one must not only be able to relate to other people, but must also be able to adapt to what others are doing. Thus Shaffer and Shoben in their *Psychology of Adjustment* (1956) compare the process of social adjustment in humans with that of biological adjustment in animals. They recommend for man the following procedure:

In response to your need for approval, you may act so as to gain favor in the future or you may display other abilities that bring you recognition. *These are quite sensible things to do under the circumstances* [Italics added] (p. 4).

As Shoben writes in the journals to a more sophisticated readership, his position becomes more complex. While he rejects the notion that the "normal" is the average, he (1957) considers pathology as being nonconformity to group norms. And like Skinner he has a utopia:

What kind of world would be ours if we were less concerned about achievement and fully occupied with understanding each other, participating more wholeheartedly in the corporate venture of building a society . . . and developed a sense of worthwhileness of intimate relationships marked by a high degree of cherishing and the mutual pursuit of essentially private interests (Shoben, 1956, pp. 330-331)?

*Criticism of Culturalism.* The critical problem of culturalism involves the choice of particular cultural values. Man cannot choose to accept or reject social values; his only option is to select particular social values. Arnold Green (1946) writes:

the history of psychotherapy can be viewed as an unsuccessful struggle to evaluate the role of social values [for] it is safe to say that all behavior resulting in the need for psychotherapy is social [in the sense that] it involves a conflict between self-and-others and between self-values and other(s) values (pp. 199-200).

Culturalism must seek to reduce diverse social values to a least common denominator, but the result is dissatisfying to many.

First, voices are raised against subservience to a "democratic" ideology which, as Green (1946) points out, is rapidly changing and which at the present time is rather vague, as Walker and Peiffer (1957) remind us in their criticism of Shoben. To provide orientation by the values of mid-century America is thus to build upon sand while the rain is already falling.

Other voices cry out that what is most common is very far from being the best. The popular press reminds us that to be normal is nothing to brag about, and every social reformer has as his bugaboo the person who is too well adjusted to things as they are. Erich Fromm (1955) sees adjustment as destroying what is distinctive in human personality and postulates a *folie à millions* where multitudes share the same vices. Another psychoanalyst, Robert Lindner (1952), sees man as exchanging the freedom that is his to work out his own destiny for the doped security of accepting things as they are.

And finally, there are psychologists who raise their voices in concern for the abdication of moral responsibility that culturalism implies. In the view of M. Brewster Smith (1954), psychology has helped to destroy values traditionally related to the Western world and, by then abdicating responsibility for values, has added "to the crescendo urging total conformity, a trend which in the long run may not be at all conservative of our traditional values" (p. 515). C. Gilbert Wrenn (1952) points out that the counselor can never be really loyal to society until he is loyal to something more than society. The psychologist to be ethical must do more than observe a code of ethics: "He must be great within himself because he relates himself to God and the greatness of the Infinite" (p. 176).

The conformitizing of the "other directed" person is being accelerated by the "organization man." The dilemma of culturalism is that it allows itself to be caught in a vicious circle—our society can be like a dog following its own tail. If there is nothing external that it can follow, it is doomed to meander meaninglessly in circles. The hope for the world is in following after the most sublime, and not after the most painfully obvious.

#### HUMANISM

While the culturalist looks outside of man to what is in the social world, there is another group of thinkers, whom we term the humanists, who believe that the criteria for ethical values lie within certain native human characteristics. In the broad sense, anyone concerned with the dignity of man is a humanist. However, as we use the term, humanism is belief in the self-sufficiency of man to control his own destiny and to realize his inherent potentialities through rational thought processes. Man's final moral obligation is to strive continually to realize all the unique potentialities which are inherent in human nature, the ultimate value being man. Among humanist psychologists, the aim is the same whether the object of therapy be termed "self-actualization" as by Goldstein, "emergent value-attributes" by Cantril, the positive "emotional tone" by Cole, or the "growth potential" by Rogers; each one equates activism with mental health.

The philosophical underpinnings of humanism in psychotherapy is seen in Eric Fromm. Fromm's slogan is *Man for Himself* (1947), the title of his best known book. He finds that "man cannot live statically because his inner contradictions drive him to seek for an equilibrium, for a new harmony instead of the lost animal harmony of nature" (1955, p. 28). Thus: "The whole life of the individual is nothing but the process of giving birth to himself" (1955, p. 26). The life of man consists in *The Art of Loving* (1956), Fromm's most recent book. To love others, one must first love himself and have faith in himself, for man must respect his own self before he can have respect for someone else.

The humanist methodology in therapy is seen in Carl Rogers, who has published his credo in the *Humanist* (1957b):

The good life, from the point of view of my experience, is the process of movement in a direction which the human organism selects when it is inwardly free to move in any direction (p. 293).

Rogers' conception of therapy seems to be almost identical with his ideal of the good life, for he believes in a "process conception of psychotherapy" (1958), which seems to be a microcosm of the good life outside. Rogers' humanistic concern determines both what he does and does not do as a counselor: the therapist plays a relatively passive role because man is inherently able to solve his own problems. The task of therapy is to let the rational self shine forth through a constricting fog in all its logic: "The tragedy for most of us is that our defenses keep us from being aware of this rationality" (1957b, p. 299). The client is a human being whose feelings are worthy of complete respect. Thus the counselor empathizes with the client and respects his emotions. Should the counselor be an unbeliever in the worth of the true self and should lack an "unconditional positive regard" for the client, the client's inner personality will not dare emerge and therapeutic change will not occur (1957a). Therapy takes place as the self finds shelter and feasts on its own experience until it becomes the fully developed onion with its concentric layers. Rogers and the client form "a mutual admiration society" whose purpose is clear: the human personality is to be magnified and praised.

*Criticism of Humanism.* Humanistic psychology can first of all be criticized for absolutizing American activism when it is only a cultural phenomenon. Rogers may tell us quite open-mindedly that he has discovered a drive towards self-assertiveness in all his clients, but he does not tell us how many of these clients were unrelated in any way to the middle class, which judges personal worth by the amount of achievement. What Rogers boasts of so proudly as self-actualization may be but the pathology of a culture whose members are frightened at being cut off from past traditions and rush pellmell into the future, as if they were animals in stampede. Today the absolute nature of self-actualization seems threatened on the one hand by the corporation, which, in the organization man, grinds out its own cultural type, and on the other hand by increasing contact with other cultures, which are in many ways superior to our own even if they produce little change over many centuries.

Humanism also lays itself open to the charge that man is not so perfectly rational as he sometimes likes to conceive himself as being. The social criticism of Reinhold Niebuhr (1941) is too complex to be quickly summarized; but, starting from premises similar to Fromm's, he sees man as being anxious. Man resolves this anxiety by deluding himself into thinking that he is really in control of life. He deceives himself into thinking that he is more perfect than he really is, erring because he is unaware of his own ignorance. Having charted the disastrous historical debacles that have been caused by self-inflated prigs, Niebuhr concludes that it is the man who thinks that he is most like God who is the most completely depraved.

Humanists frequently surround themselves with the sanctimonious glow of those who can "intuit" experiences to which the tough minded remain impervious. But being optimistic about human nature does not make a man more saintly, any more than Niebuhr's ability to see the manifestations of human sinfulness wherever he looks makes him less of a believer in God. Humanism represents the Enlightenment. But set against the Enlightenment is the pessimism of Freudian psychoanalysis and Pauline theology, for these two movements span the history of the Western world like the legs of a caliper and provide their own measure for man.

Self-actualization does not seem to be enough. Some men seem so bereft of personality that they have few powers to realize; while others, such as F. Scott Fitzgerald and Francoise Sagan, have drained a rich humanity to the dregs and have felt only *ennui* in the process of living. Man is a creature caught between the need of individuality and the need of belonging, plagued by contradictory loyalties to the self and to others; burdened by the guilt inherent in the realization that he has not fulfilled his potentialities; and inwardly frightened as he seeks to build up walls of meaning out of sand in a delirious attempt to enshrine the human self which he knows the incoming tide of time will surely wash away.

In contradiction to humanism, there are some who believe that man has some other end than merely to feel dignified. They would say that man has the greatest dignity when he feels his own inward wretchedness and that he is the creature of the greatest progress when "his richest gain he counts but loss, and pours contempt on all his pride."

#### THEISM

The final value orientation, theism, believes that man's loyalty is to God and that man is totally dependent upon God. Believers in other value orientations can also be religious in a broad sense of the word. The theist, however, differs from all who believe in the self-sufficiency of man by his belief in a personal God before whom he stands in need of redemption.

While theists have a diversity of beliefs, there is one value that is central: "You shall love the Lord your God with all your heart, and with all your soul, and with all your might." This great commandment involves the theist with the will of God in interpersonal relations, including marriage and family problems; in the choice and resolution of conflicts; in finding a philosophy of life; and in vocational choice.

Theism is distinctive in its belief that man is lost until he has found God. In words which Augustine addresses to God: "Thou hast made us for Thyself, and the heart never rests until it finds its rest in Thee." Man is a creature dependent past, present, and future upon the God who created him. While the humanist believes that man is made in the image of God in a way that enables him to become a little god, the theist believes that man is made in the image of God as one set of gears is made in the image of another set, so that it can receive power in order to pass it on.

The theist believes that the problems that men face are such that they have a solution in religious faith. When despair over the apparent meaninglessness and monotony of life causes a depressed state, the cure is through faith in a God who creates all life for a unique purpose. In the melancholy of change of life and in the despair of old age, he finds in religion that path of transition from physical to spiritual goals. When man is fearful, he finds strength through the spirit of God; and, when he is anxious within, he finds inner reassurance in the love of the Heavenly Father, whose love can bear his inner weaknesses. In loneliness and in isolation from other people, he enters into harmonic relationships with those who seek to radiate a forgiving love that understands all things.

Gordon W. Allport (1950) thus notes that "love is incomparably the greatest psychotherapeutic agent" (p. 80). He notes that religion needs to become a part of psychotherapy, for it "offers an in-



terpretation of life and a rule of life that is based wholly upon love" (p. 82). Allport also notes that religion is needed to give meaning to life, a need also noted by Carl Jung (1933), who, speaking of his patients over 35, claims that

It is safe to say that everyone of them fell ill because he had lost that which the living religions of every age have given to their followers, and none of them has been really healed who did not regain his spiritual outlook (p. 264).

*Criticism of Theism.* There are certain objections that are raised against theism. If man is anxious and upset because he has difficulty in believing in anything deeply, then religious faith becomes the problem. While the vast majority of Americans believe in God according to the opinion polls, theism requires a committed faith that rather few people have had in any age.

A second objection takes into account the wrong use of religion. Finding an awakening of religious interest in the postwar era, a number of America's most prominent churchmen have spoken out against a religious revival, which, lacking any deep-seated devotion to God, is centered in a self-serving religious faith that is interested only in comfort by the bland assurance that everything is really all right. Prophetically, at the very start of the postwar era, Arnold Green (1946) saw the dangers in superficial religion, pointing out that "faith cannot be consciously designed to meet a personality need any more than it can be established by fiat or legislative action" (p. 205). He concluded that religion can be therapeutic only when it is not so regarded.

A third objection is that theism keeps man in infantile dependence. Psychoanalysis believes that authoritarian religion is the internalized voice of authority, having the same restrictive effect as had the father. Fromm (1947) thus lists ways in which he feels organized religion has impeded human progress. Somewhat similarly, Rollo May (1953) objects to "the divine right of being taken care of" which blocks growth towards maturity. May further brands as neurotic the use of religion in helping to obviate that loneliness and anxiety which is vital to *Man's Search for Himself*.

There are certain irreconcilable differences between theism and the other value orientations at critical choice-points. For the humanist, man gains his life by holding it close to him, cherishing it, and feeling the self develop within him. The theist on the other hand believes that man finds his life only

by losing his life and by emptying the self for others, being filled with a love which is ultimately of God. These are two contrasting ways to mental health, and the psychologist must choose between them.

#### CONCLUSION

If the psychologist is by definition to be ethical, he must conform to professional standards of conduct. Having described different value orientations, we can now conclude that there is no single professional standard to which his values can conform. If psychology declares by fiat that one set of values is to become absolute, it ceases to be science and becomes a social movement. If it chooses a syncretistic blend, it has arbitrarily decided in favor of a culturalism that attempts to adapt to as many viewpoints as possible. But when a value is compromised, it has become the means to some other end. Finally, psychology can choose to hide its head in the sand of scientific research. However, the only result of such a move would be a regression to ethical superstitions exceeding even those of the so-called primitives. To do research without intending it to serve a particular value orientation is to build a high speed automobile without any steering wheel.

Williamson has already made a start in untieing the ethical knot by suggesting that value orientations be removed from under the proverbial bushel and, once out in the open, be dealt with as objectively as possible. We would suggest in addition that each area in psychology become more fully aware of the implications of its efforts, much as education does through a philosophy of education. We would further suggest that, as psychologists familiarize themselves with the value orientation under which they operate, that they confess their philosophic biases and then turn those biases to fullest advantage by being of professional assistance to the special interest groups with which their values coincide. In such ways as these the public will receive more of what psychology has to contribute and, dealing with psychology at a more objective level, will be able to put that contribution to better use.

We conclude that differences in value orientations cannot be resolved, each orientation having adherents whose beliefs should be respected. We suggest that each counselor have an understanding of



the values both of himself and others and that his values be known by all who are personally affected by his professional behavior.

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## Comment

### On Harmonious Relationships with Public Schools

The article by Frances A. Mullen in the January issue of the *American Psychologist* (pages 53-56) deserves attention from clinical and experimental psychologists. The list of ongoing research projects being carried out in cooperation with the Chicago public school system is an impressive one and points to the mutually rewarding relationship that can exist between fact minded psychologists and more easy going educators. Mullen has pointed out some of the areas of disagreement which have prevented these relationships from coming to fruition in the past. While it is true that educators have been somewhat resistant to basic research, it is also true that psychologists, as a group, have not used "psychology" in their approach to school systems.

Perhaps our lack of patience and tolerance has been due to our strong motivations. When one sees in every school system a captive population of potential subjects, the majority of whom will be around for many years, the temptation is great indeed to ignore such claims as "directly related to the curriculum" and "not interfering with the routine of the schools."

There is much that psychologists have to learn about school systems. At the University of Texas it has, for the last few years, been customary to have advanced students in clinical psychology spend some time as observers in grade schools. They usually come back with more respect for the capabilities of a teacher and even develop a few hypotheses they would like to test. They are also quite amazed at the changes that have taken place in grade schools.

The problem of gaining the cooperation of school systems depends on the skill and tact of the investigator. Besides following the APA rules in regard to use of subjects there are a few informal ground rules which might be followed with profit:

1. Involve the teachers to some extent and give full credit to them. Gain their cooperation and you will have a much easier time.

2. Interpret the findings back to the teachers in language they can understand. If the results support a certain theoretical position as the effect of motivation on certain problem solving activities, try to relate these findings to the possibility of their later application in regular school situations. Even if they lack formal training in psychology, they may be able to contribute to your interpretations.

3. Listen a little more patiently to the classroom teacher. Put her at ease and do not look down from your lofty intellectual perch. In all fairness, you should recognize she

may be threatened with your working with her pupils and that the time taken for experimentation may interfere with some goals she has to attain.

4. Most likely, the word "psychologist" will link you with being somewhat of a specialist in "adjustment." You will perhaps have to observe a student who is causing trouble in class. Observe him well and note what he does on your experimental procedures. You may learn a great deal about motivation and attitudes. You can be sympathetic to the problems of teachers without providing her with the answers.

5. When your research is completed, observe the social amenities by writing a letter to the principal and to the teachers involved thanking them for their cooperation; and, later on, do not forget to send each a reprint with your personal signature. A letter to the school superintendent commending the school staff is good policy, especially if some official of your university signs it.

6. If at all possible, talk to the class as a whole after the study is completed. Give them an inkling of what you did and why you did it. Make it simple, answer their questions, and ask if they would like to participate again. A resounding yes will not hurt your cause for future studies. It will justify your claims that their time was well spent. It may also impress youngsters with the work that psychologists do. This does not hurt future relationships.

7. In the planning stage of a study it is recommended that you discuss the study fully with school officials. Go through channels. It is risky to send a too eager graduate student to do this alone. A bit of selling may have to be done. This calls for skill and patience and some humility—qualities most usually present in a more experienced investigator. Make sure the experimental conditions under which you want the pupils are clearly understood. Do not settle for less than the conditions you need in the hope of altering them once you have obtained permission to work with the students.

Psychologists are becoming increasingly interested in children, and normal children to boot. It is imperative that we repair our strained relationships with school systems in order to take advantage of the immense potential that they offer to the research psychologist. At present, in most cases the term "psychologist" is synonymous with the giving of tests, the assessment of intelligence, and the working with problem children. Although these are worthy and fitting pursuits, the time is not too far distant when the term "school psychologist" may take on a different meaning. I envision the day when he will be a person well trained in child and developmental psychology, learning theory, social psychology, and research methodology. Such a person could fittingly undertake large scale programmatic researches involving teachers and officials as well as stu-

dents. This combination of skills is the best way to advance our meager knowledge of the learning process and its relationship to personality development.

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### On Doctoral Dissertations

A piece of research is a creation no less than a work of art. The investigator begins with an idea, elaborates it into a design which he executes and brings to completion in a written report. Like any other creation a good experiment derives from long diligent practice and many partial failures and complete flops. This is expected and accepted in all the arts and most of the sciences except apparently in psychology where a goodly number of doctoral candidates expect to carry out earth shattering studies the first time out (with about as much chance as a first novelist).

This attitude leads to a proliferation of grandiose studies with often little significance for the science in general and the investigator in particular. Would it not be much more realistic and valuable all the way around for the candidate to replicate, with perhaps some innovations, significant experiments of recognized master psychologists? The candidate would learn to choose significant problems; he would master a fruitful technique, worth a hundred grandiose ideas; and he would make a useful contribution to a science which must blush each time the repeatability of its experiments is mentioned.

In the arts there is a saying that, if you wish to learn, you must go to the master. The doctoral candidate could well be urged to follow that advice.

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### Education for Research in Psychology

The report of the Estes Park Seminar on Education for Research in Psychology (*Amer. Psychologist*, 1959, 14, 167-179) makes exciting reading. The strong emphasis on an early introduction to research work, especially at the undergraduate level, seems particularly cogent. All will agree that one who has not developed the research habit as a graduate student is unlikely to do so during or after the first two hectic years of teaching. Even for one whose primary concern is teaching, a firsthand acquaintance with the difference between the raw behavior and the journal reports is important.

This initial pleasure gives way to a sense of disenchantment upon rereading those parts of the report which deal with the more formal aspects of training.

The seminar apparently advocates the doctrine of the golden mean: theory, breadth of scholarship, statistics, etc. are not bad, are indeed necessary; but there is a serious danger that they may be carried to excess. This is no doubt true; but the warning is anchored neither by specific recommendations, nor by any relevant data, nor even anything more than a lip service suggestion that it would be useful to investigate curriculum problems in an objective way. There is thus a serious danger that the seminar's report will be all things to all men and that energy which could be spent in such investigation will be dissipated in arguing out compromises of opinions based on insufficient data.

It is the purpose of this note to present evidence on one aspect of the problem: that of statistics training. The evidence is far from decisive in nature, but it is thought that it will help inform discussions of the role of statistics in the graduate curriculum. It should be emphasized at once that there is much that is sensible in the seminar's discussion of statistics (although it may be noted that experimental design is not statistics; that the two are taught hand in hand simply illustrates the fact that statistics is an integral part of research practice). Certainly experimental control, *if feasible*, is superior to statistical "control." However, among the functions of statistics is that of testing whether or not the behavior is indeed under experimental control.

For statistics, it is fortunately not difficult to obtain some objective information. The example chosen for investigation was the problem of matching or equating groups. The principles and techniques appropriate to this problem, assuming that the subjects are drawn from a single population, are simple and have been known for some time. A recent summary of the considerations involved, together with additional valuable results, can be found in Feldt (*Psychometrika*, 1958, 23, 335-353). Matching can be one of the most powerful design techniques available to the investigator. When the matching variable is correlated with the dependent variable, a proper design and analysis shed light on the matching variable and also yield a more sensitive experiment.

It was the writer's impression that the matched groups problem is not well handled in psychology; the common practice seemed to be that of equating on mean (and variance) which is generally the worst possible procedure. In order to test this impression, Volume 51 (1958) of the *Journal of Comparative and Physiological Psychology* was examined for experiments which used matching. 22 articles were found in which subjects from a single population were assigned to groups matched on the basis of some quantitative organismic variable. Of these 22 articles, 8 used a statistical analysis which made some use of the matching variable. Although this might seem to

be a reasonably good score, there are several qualifications. First, 5 of the 8 experiments used analysis of covariance with little or no reported indication that the assumptions, which are rather stringent (see Feldt), had been met. Second, there were also a fair number of instances of matching on the basis of qualitative variables such as sex and litter. In only a few of these experiments did it appear that the matching variable had been included in the analysis. Third, there were a number of experiments in which matching probably would have been useful but was not used. Fourth, and perhaps most important, in only one of the 8 cases was there any statement as to whether the matching was useful, i.e., whether the matching variable was correlated with the dependent variable. Such data will occasionally be of interest in itself. More frequently, it will facilitate the work of others by indicating which variables are in need of control and which may be safely neglected. It thus seems reasonable to conclude that matching is indeed not handled well. Further, if this example is representative of present statistics' behavior, it is doubtful whether current instruction is at all adequate to the needs of the researcher.

It is obvious that different research areas require different degrees of statistical knowledge and that in all one can do good work making all significance tests "by eye." Nevertheless, it is not unreasonable to believe that a certain minimum knowledge for research trainees can be determined. Students who go into certain areas may use relatively little of what they have learned, but it is important that ignorance does not trap them in these areas nor leave them deaf to the possibilities of a clean design and analysis when the occasion cries out for one.

One of the functions of graduate training should be to broaden the student's outlook on psychology, a goal which is even more important for substantive material than for statistics. This note has concentrated on statistics, and it is hoped that it will help anchor the seminar's treatment of the topic. Perhaps it will also illustrate the value of factual information even though the example is minor and the evidence is limited. Psychology will be fortunate if the members of the seminar set their manifold talents to bringing the greater problems of graduate instruction out of the domain of personal-impression correlations and into the light of objective and of experimental evidence.

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### A Pitfall in Industrial Research

The purpose of this note is to call attention to a methodological pitfall which is illustrated in a study recently described by Lawshe (1959).

The study deals with differential perception of the foreman's duties by ten printing foremen and their supervisors. Lawshe summarizes the results as follows:

It is strikingly evident that there is an extremely high relationship between the extent to which the foreman and his superintendent understand each other with respect to job content, and the efficiency of the foreman's performance as judged by three staff men (p. 293).

The relationship is indeed striking (Lawshe's scattergram yields a rank correlation of .77), and it would have important implications for management if its foundational nature were obvious. However, as Gage and Cronbach (1955) point out, in studies of this type a linkage between accuracy of perception (in this case *agreement* of perception) and criterion of effectiveness may give rise to a spurious correlation. There seems to be a good possibility of such a linkage in the study Lawshe describes.

The study measured agreement between perception of foreman and supervisor with the ratio:

$$\frac{N_{fs}}{N_{fs} + N_f + N_s}$$

The numerator in this ratio is the number of activities on a 224-item foreman activity checklist marked jointly by the foreman and his supervisor. The denominator is the same value plus the number of activities marked by only one or the other of the two men. Lawshe suggests that this simple index is adequate because discrepancies in the numbers of activities marked by foreman and supervisor were small. But another factor which affects the adequacy of the index is the absolute number of activities marked. For example, if a foreman and his supervisor both mark 273 of the 224 activities, they must agree on at least 222; and the index cannot be lower than .99. But, if each of them marks only 2 of the 224 activities, they may not agree on any; and there are plenty of chances for the index to be 0. In the former case, the minimum possible score is .99; in the latter, it is 0. If a foreman and his supervisor mark activities on a random basis, the index is a function of the total number of activities marked and is an inadequate measure of real agreement between foreman and supervisor.

The above example illustrates the high probability that the number of activities marked affects the index of agreement. However, the number of activities marked must also be related to effectiveness ratings if it is to form a linkage between them and the index of agreement. Examination of the questions put to the foremen and supervisors on the activities checklist indicates that the number of activities checked might very well be related to effectiveness ratings. The questions were (p. 292):



Does your superintendent hold you accountable for this activity?

Do you hold this foreman accountable for this activity?

There are at least two reasons why the number of activities checked in answer to these questions could be related to the effectiveness ratings. First, raters may view the number of activities delegated to a foreman as a good indication of his competence. Second, supervisors tend to delegate more duties to foremen who demonstrate superior job performance.

It seems very possible that the more effective foremen and their supervisors would mark more activities on the checklist and would therefore obtain higher indices of agreement. A reasonable conclusion is that the high correlation between effectiveness ratings and the index of foreman-supervisor agreement on job duties can be explained in terms of linkage with a third variable: viz., the number of activities delegated to the foreman. As Gage and Cronbach (1955) point out:

When findings can be explained parsimoniously as an artifact, investigators have the responsibility of making and reporting whatever analysis is necessary to preclude such possibilities (p. 419).

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### The Rebuilding of Our Statistical Structure

Are outmoded statistical methods and tools used because of their intrenchment? Could the whole statistical structure be profitably built over from its foundations? Is it like typewriter keyboards and natural languages which could be vastly improved except for the trauma of the transition?

Take, for instance, correlation coefficients. Is statistical prediction underrated because of the nature of this statistic? When a college ability test is correlated with end-of-year grade point averages, the coefficient is usually only fairly high. Is this a proper indication of its validity? If the difference in the fate of the lowest and highest tenth on the test is most striking, would a ratio showing this be too significant to omit?

Are there enough real mathematicians within psychology to cope with this problem? Should specialists in mathematics be brought in to help? In any case, research methodology is certainly a wide open frontier of

research for eager, creative young psychologists on the way up.

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### Metaphor in Personality Theory

Because the more advanced sciences, in their present state of development, are largely concerned with highly formalized and precise statements of relationship among phenomena, many psychologists take it as their *immediate* task to develop such formalized statements in psychology. In order to pursue such a course, they prefer to bypass those more primitive stages of thinking through which other sciences have progressed.

One such mode of primitive thinking is metaphorical. The scientist links a problem under study to a familiar situation and develops a comparison between the problem situation and its analogue. In the evolution of a science, metaphors have given rise to accurate statements of relationship among the phenomena observed. The analogues may then "wither."

For example, the history of physics includes the alternative wave and corpuscular metaphors, invoked to account for light phenomena. Since the various phenomena of light could not be fully described in terms of either the wave or the corpuscular theories, a more general formulation, embracing structural features of both theories, was proposed. The general formulation, accounting more precisely for the full range of observations than either the wave or the corpuscular theories, no longer had corresponding to it a concrete natural analogue. The more general formulation was neutral as regards metaphor. The intimate relation between theory and the metaphors which had nourished it was terminated.

Just as the history of physics has been enriched by thinking of light phenomena in wave or corpuscular terms, so the history of psychology has been enriched by metaphor. Consider, for example, the metaphor of fluid flow, so advantageously developed by McDougall and Freud.

With McDougall, purposive behavior is traceable to various "propensities" of the individual. "A *propensity* is a disposition . . . which, when . . . excited, generates an active *tendency* . . . towards some goal." As the individual matures, his propensities are gradually modified by, and co-ordinated with, significant aspects of the environment. Stable organizations of propensities, developed in respect to given features of the environment, are designated as "sentiments"; the sentiments in their totality constitute a man's "character."

McDougall often discussed his basic concepts in fluid-flow terms. Striving is, for McDougall, like the "flow" of a "stream" or "current"; a propensity, like

the "source" or "well-spring" of such a stream. "The evocation of each propensity liberates energy which flows most naturally into some system of channels peculiar to its tendency." A sentiment, then, resembles a river bed, eroded to carry the flow from smaller, swifter tributaries. And character, comprising the various sentiments, resembles the drainage system of an entire river basin.

Like McDougall, Freud conceived of action as being instigated by pressures resulting in fluid flow. The "libido" is, for Freud, a chief motive force underlying thought and action. Freud likened the libido to a fluid that "flows"; that has "sources [from which] it streams"; that is stored in a "reservoir," from which it can be withdrawn.

In contrast to McDougall, who thought in terms of flow constrained by passive natural structures (themselves fashioned by the flows of earlier times), Freud thought in terms of human actions and man-made structures, superimposed on the natural scene, which actively alter the course and rate of fluid flow. Freud, impressed in his clinical practice now by violent passions, now by absence of feeling, now by loss of memory, employed the imagery of flooding, flood control, and rescue following disaster. In discussing trauma, he referred to the "flooding of the psychic apparatus" by "instreaming excitations." The flow of libido whose discharge might have dangerous consequences is regulated by "displacement" or is arrested by "damming." Restoration by psychotherapy of an "ego" damaged by neurosis is comparable to the "reclamation" of flooded lands—"like the draining of the Zuyder Zee."

These metaphors were employed for more than merely illustrative purposes. There is substantial reason to believe that some of these metaphors, at least, were an enormously fruitful influence in generating the theories of McDougall and of Freud. Indeed, the very nature of McDougall's thinking is reflected in his choice of metaphor. McDougall's theory involves a simple, straightforward development of a single metaphor to cover many varied and significant life phenomena. McDougall's theory, like his metaphor, provides great breadth, but not too much depth. On the other hand, Freud, challenged by a greater variety of problems, produced a multiplicity of metaphors: "dream censor," "horse and rider" (representing "id" and "ego"), "precipitate" (suggesting the manner in which both "ego" and "superego" are formed), and so on. Each of these metaphors was invoked by Freud as a special conceptual tool for handling a given problem. Less concerned to arrive at a neat, unitary, all-embracing system, Freud developed a patchwork of metaphors, often deep and complex, not always clearly related to each other.

Metaphor, then, frequently permits, even induces, a new conception to unfold. Such a germinal metaphor,

especially when unrecognized by the thinker, may be obscure or confused; but this very lack of clarity may give rise to tensions within the thinker which act to resolve the ambiguities in the metaphor. The instability of a metaphor can thus serve to broaden the thinker's horizon beyond the limits of what is given here and now and to sharpen his appreciation of the possibilities for further theoretical development. Lines of correspondence between the given phenomenon and its analogue, thus developed, can, when recognized and analyzed, lead to the assertion of clear, testable statements of specific relations among observed events.

Understanding psychological theories, such as those of Freud or McDougall, and comparison of theories are often facilitated by contemplating the metaphors in terms of which the theorists worked and by which they may have been inspired. Understanding one's own work and realization of one's own creative potentialities may similarly be enhanced by attending more closely to the metaphors of one's own making—metaphors which one often fails to recognize or to value. From such metaphors, primitive though they may be, formal theories of great precision and economy do arise.

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### Support for Academic Freedom

Earlier this year I received within the same month two bits of information which I still have not been able to integrate meaningfully. Cognitive dissonance is pushing me hard. First, I received from the Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues a note saying that the division's Academic Freedom Fund was being suspended as there had been no calls upon it. A short time thereafter the President of the American Association of University Professors, Bently Glass, stated to us that the treatment accorded faculty members in the South centering about their views on desegregation and race was fast becoming the greatest problem in the area of academic freedom which the AAUP faces.

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### Nondescript Non-Dues-Paying Members

In the fall of 1958, in an attempt to trace the relative growth of different membership categories in the APA, I came to a dead halt in the 1958 APA *Directory*, which listed figures for only Fellows and Members instead of for Life Members, Fellows, and Associates as in previous years. From the APA Central Office I obtained the 1957 figures for the triple classification of "Members," "Fellows," and "dues exempt," the latter in the column for "Life Members."

It is most unfortunate, according to the predilections of this scribe, that the vote of the APA membership in 1957 left the non-dues-paying members without a respectable identification tag, something more worthy in positive suggestion than the awkward and cumbersome designation "dues exempt member." The important consideration about the retirees is, not the fact that they have been freed from paying the annual dues, but that they have been accorded a special, privileged, or honorable status in recognition of their faithful alliance with the association for a period of 25 years or more. People who have been employed in private industry for 25 years receive suitable awards nowadays as a matter of course, often articles of considerable monetary value. Is it expecting too much to honor a veteran of the APA with a worthy verbal award, the title of Life Member—for that is what he actually is—or better still Honorary Life Member or Honorary Life Fellow? He deserves more than a negative accolade. Who in introductions or otherwise wants to refer to an APA retiree as a "dues exempt member of the APA" in view of the official abolition of the title of Life Member? What is the proper term to use in referring to these retirees now? We need a distinctive, unambiguous term that carries no reproach or offensive implication.

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### The Science and the Profession of Psychology in the Area of Family Relations and Marriage Counseling

In spite of the fact that it has been well demonstrated that marriage and family relations can be studied scientifically, psychology as a science and psychology as a profession have been relatively apathetic toward this area of human behavior. Evidence of such apathy includes the following:

1. There is no division of APA on marriage or family relations.
2. There is no APA journal dealing especially with marriage and family relations.
3. There is no diploma offered by ABEPP in marriage counseling, and virtually no attention to this area of human behavior has been expected on the part of applicants for diplomate status.
4. APA has never had a postdoctoral institute on marriage and family relations.
5. Only about 3% of college level courses in marriage and family relations are offered by departments of psychology (Glover, 1950) as compared to 65% by sociology, 22% by home economics, 5% by religion, and 3% by social science. In his review of literature related to marriage and the family, Glover found the references to be mainly from sociology. He states (in a private communication) that

"the only ones from the field of psychology pertain to counseling and psychotherapy in general and not to marriage counseling in particular."

6. The index number of *Psychological Abstracts* for 1958 shows only 30 titles under the heading "Marriage" as compared to 370 for "Child" (including "Child behavior," "Child guidance," and related subjects). It was of interest to find that there were 34 titles under "Shock therapy"!

7. Under the general heading "Clinical Psychology, Guidance, Counseling" in *Psychological Abstracts*, August 1958, there appear the following subheadings: "Methodology, Techniques," "Diagnosis and Evaluation," "Treatment Methods," "Child Guidance," and "Vocational Guidance." There is no subheading on "Family Relations" or "Marriage Counseling." Under the main heading "Social Psychology" the subheadings are: "Methods and Measurements," "Cultures and Cultural Relations," "Social Institutions," "Language and Communications." Although the subheading "Social Institutions" does include "marriage," it also includes such a wide range as "communists," "religion," "disaster displaced families," and "resistance movements."

8. In the comprehensive and authoritative volume *Survey of Clinical Practice in Psychology* (Rubinstein & Lorr, 1954), the index shows no entry under the heading "Family" or "Marriage" and has no subheading of these under the main heading "Counseling." This volume speaks of clinical psychologists as being associated with "clinics for alcoholics," "old-age counseling clinics," "student counseling bureaus," "speech clinics," and other agencies, but implies that they give little attention to the field of family relations and marriage counseling and centers or clinics dealing with this area of human behavior.

9. Of the 71 psychologists listed in the August 1958 *Classified Telephone Directory* of the Los Angeles Central District, believed to be large and representative, under the trademark listing of members of the Southern California Psychological Association only 6 psychologists (8%) mention family relations or marriage counseling as a specialty. It is acknowledged, of course, that many such psychologists do work in this field, even though they specify Clinical Psychology, for example, as their only specialty.

10. Of the 60 persons or agencies listed under the classification "Marriage Counselors" in the same telephone directory, only 6 names (10%) are found in the 1958 *APA Directory*, although at least 2 agencies listed are known to have APA members on their staff.

It is the belief of the author that the tendency for psychology to ignore this important area of life should be reversed. It is contended that psychology should become a recognized leader, perhaps the recognized leader, among the several disciplines dealing with marriage and family relations. Among reasons for this contention are the following:

1. Psychology is the best formulated of the behavioral sciences and thus is better equipped both in research and in application of its findings.

2. While study of the group and of the institution is the province of sociology, study of relationships between members of a small group such as the family belongs more

properly in the province of psychology inasmuch as a large part of the study is of one individual himself. There is little to support the view that relationship between parent and child is subject matter for psychology while relationship between husband and wife is primarily subject matter for sociology.

3. The author is in agreement with the view which has been widely expressed that psychotherapy is an integral part of most marriage counseling. For this reason the person who does marriage counseling should be equipped to do psychotherapy and should have appropriate recognition as one who is so equipped, such as certification, diplomate status with ABEPP, or whatever is expected of the well trained psychotherapist.

4. As certification or licensing of psychologists becomes mandatory in the several states, it appears inevitable that many who find themselves ineligible for classification as psychologists will choose the classification "Marriage Counselor," thus loading this latter classification with those who aspire to be psychologists but who are unable to qualify for state certification or certification by boards set up by professional associations such as ABEPP. Knowledge of the fact that in the trained professional psychologist the public can find a person well qualified to deal with the area of family relations can be a step toward meeting this challenge.

In view of the urgency to act and the importance of taking many facts into consideration, the author recommends that Division 12 take appropriate action by way of answering the following questions:

1. Can psychology as such make a significant and desirable contribution toward the welfare of society by promoting increased study of this area of human behavior?

2. To what extent can psychology make its best contribution by encouraging, or working with, related behavioral sciences rather than by initiating an approach which might lead to the criticism that "the psychologists are taking over"?

3. Are existing organizations which emphasize family and marriage counseling sufficiently sound in their scientific approach so that psychologists can and should join these organizations? (The National Council on Family Relations, an interest group, and the American Association of Mar-

riage Counselors,<sup>1</sup> an interdisciplinary group, are cases in point.) Or should APA encourage one of its existing divisions to emphasize family relations and marriage counseling and also encourage any psychologist who specializes in family relations or marriage counseling to become active in that division?

4. Should the psychologist who specializes in family relations and marriage counseling be encouraged to qualify as a diplomate of ABEPP? If so, should he qualify in (a) clinical psychology or (b) counseling, or (c) should ABEPP set up a new diploma, i.e., in marriage counseling?

5. Should the psychologist who specializes in family relations and marriage counseling have a core-curriculum background, and should he also have supervised experience in this field? If so, should this be predoctoral or postdoctoral? Should it be carried on in conjunction with those in other disciplines, or should it be in departments of psychology or in institutes designed especially for the training of psychologists?

The fact that the issue is complex and that efforts to face it may be difficult should not prevent organized psychology from meeting the challenge forced upon it by exigencies of the times. In no area of human behavior is there a greater need, and for no effort on the part of scientists (unless it be the prevention of war itself) will there be greater appreciation than will be accorded to those who contribute toward creating and maintaining happy families.

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<sup>1</sup> At its 1959 Annual Meeting the APA Council of Representatives appointed Howard E. Mitchell the APA Representative to the American Association of Marriage Counselors. EDITOR.



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# *Psychology in Action*

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## PSYCHOLOGISTS FOR THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS: A TRAINING PROGRAM

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PSYCHOLOGICAL services in the public schools face a demand there is no hope of meeting in the foreseeable future. A currently used ratio of school children to psychologists considered adequate, though not extravagant, is that of one psychologist to 2,000 children. With about 40,000,000 children in the public schools today, simple arithmetic indicates that to meet this need we would need approximately the number of psychologists now members of the APA. This is one part of the picture so well documented in Albee's recent monograph (1959) on manpower in the mental health field. Furthermore, as in other helping professions, increasing service appears to augment rather than to satisfy demand. This was neatly demonstrated in a recent study (Salten, Elkin, & Trachtman, 1956) of school psychological services in Nassau County, New York, where probably the lowest ratio of pupils to psychologists in the country exists. Here it was found that the more psychological services a school system provided the less apt it was to consider these services adequate.

The solution to this problem, if a solution exists, will probably lie not in the impossible task of increasing markedly the number to be trained but in developing new or somewhat different ways of functioning for psychologists in the schools. This conviction was the point of departure which led to the establishing of the program Peabody College initiated in the fall of 1957 for the doctoral training of psychologists to work in the schools. The establishment of this program was made possible through a grant from the National Institute of Mental Health.

This manpower problem we approached by two converging paths. The first was to ask what seemed to be the particular needs and characteristics of the public schools of America at the mid-century which might suggest areas in which psychologists could be helpful. The other avenue was to look at what knowledge was now available in psychology, or promised to be available in the future, which seemed relevant for working with schools and school personnel.

As we took the first approach, several things emerged. One was the problem that schools face in terms of

greatly increased enrollments, an increase that has far outstripped, and will continue to outstrip, the growth in numbers of teachers and of school buildings. School superintendents today say that their chief headaches are the three Bs—bricks, bonds, and buses—problems growing directly out of mounting school populations. The barrage of criticisms of the schools and the public's concern with particular aspects of the curriculum are other conspicuous problems. Especially germane is the heightened emphasis upon superior school achievement, the identification of the academically talented, and the provision of special opportunities for them. A final area of importance is that of mental health. This has been overshadowed recently in the public eye by the emphasis on achievement and academic talent. Yet people in education continue to be rightfully concerned with the school's responsibility in preventive mental health.

As we took our second path and looked at what psychology might offer to the schools, certain things emerged. One was the considerable knowledge available in certain areas of psychology which is not customarily made use of in school settings. For example, much of what social psychology has learned about the functioning of groups and the nature of social organisms has found little place in the school's program of psychological services. Less than one might expect, considering its relevance, of the findings of developmental psychology are applied appropriately in the day-by-day work of the classroom teacher. True, some areas of psychology, notably clinical, have fared better.

Important areas of knowledge in psychology, however, change, and findings become obsolete. A second thing of significance for us was that characteristic of our profession has grown to view as the hallmark of the psychologist: a data oriented empirical approach to problems, a look at situations, wherever they occur, in terms of what is researchable within them.

We also included one other aspect of psychology in our thinking: the area of training in interpersonal relations. Our concern here was not just with a one-to-one relationship in a psychotherapeutic setting but rather with broader applications in many sorts of personal and group contacts.

The convergence of the two paths of school needs and of potentials in psychology came at the point of asking how psychologists might be most productive in the schools of today and tomorrow. One answer was that the school psychologist would function most effectively as he developed means of extending his functions and of transferring them to others wherever possible. Particularly, we saw the school psychologist as working through those with the broadest contacts with children, their teachers. Although this is not a new idea, attention does need to be given to specific training in this direction. Another answer was that the psychologist in the public schools might well function most effectively as a problem solver. To be sure, each person in the schools, teacher or school executive, is a problem solver. Here we were thinking, however, of a problem solver with special research skills that enable him to find answers to problems as definitely and economically as possible. Research skills are not the exclusive property of the psychologist. Among the personnel in schools, however, he is the most likely to have had research training, with what it implies in skills and attitudes.

Our concept of training at Peabody, then, has grown out of a belief that psychology's contribution to the schools might well lie in the three not unrelated aspects of the field mentioned: current knowledge of human behavior, skills in interpersonal relations, and research ability. It has also grown out of a conviction that the school psychologist may have his greatest impact in the schools in two ways: first, by transferring his services through training others and by the development of social inventions to extend his usefulness and, second, through serving as a problem solver making maximum use of his research skills.

Making this concept viable is another matter. The ways of functioning we are suggesting are not startlingly new; they do, however, place a considerable demand upon the flexibility and originality of the person carrying out such a role. This will be particularly true when the erstwhile student goes out into a school setting. Immediate service demands will be enormous; there will often not be a congenial environment for research; urgency rather than importance is apt to determine the priority of his days. The education of the school psychologist, then, if he is to function along the lines suggested, must develop skills and attitudes that will enable him to handle service demands in the broader context of their training value for teachers and others and in light of their long term utility. His training must further enable him to build a favorable environment for research in school settings and develop within him some of the particular skills that research in such settings demands.

A matter of first importance to us was that our students should be trained primarily as psychologists. A

generic psychologist, however, has become increasingly difficult to identify in this age of specialization. Except for a general agreement upon research training there is no common core for which we find universal support. The most promising approach might be to follow the line of reasoning used by Charles W. Cole (1953) some years ago in an address upon graduate education. Using medicine as his focus he made the point that this discipline had long since passed the stage in which it was possible to teach the medical student all he needed to know to practice medicine. Instead the point of emphasis must shift, and in some schools of medicine has shifted, to an effort to teach the student to *think like a physician*.

We are not sure of all that *thinking like a psychologist* implies. One thing is certainly the problem solving attitude already discussed. Out of a background in the science of psychology and out of a training in research that has emphasized an approach to situations in terms of what is known about them and what is researchable within them, the student may come to think like a psychologist. Our answer as to what particular background in psychology is most helpful in this respect is not unusual. The students take basic courses in experimental, personality theory, developmental, learning, measurement, and social psychology. In these areas, our aspiration is to emphasize skills for keeping abreast of the literature and for making critical analyses of problems in terms of the research literature which can be brought to bear upon them. Since it is unlikely that the specific content learned today will be applicable ten years hence, such an approach to learning how to learn seems more promising than simple content acquisition.

Beyond the broad content fields, emphasis is placed upon two areas. One is research training directed toward the problem focus already discussed. The other is training in clinical skills. We do not see our graduates functioning primarily as clinicians—indeed they do not have as concentrated training here as we would expect of graduates of a straight clinical program. Beyond the area of appraisal, in which we hope for a relatively high level of competence, the major use of their clinical skills will probably come in the general field of consultation and, to a lesser extent, in the supervision of other psychological personnel.

But we hope for our graduates not only that they learn to think and act like psychologists but that they learn to do so in a school setting. The graduate will need a thoroughgoing knowledge of schools; of school personnel, especially teachers and school executives; and of the community of which the schools are a part. They must know the limits and potentials of school situations; they must understand the values, hopes, and anxieties of school people.

This understanding of the schools and the ability to empathize with teachers is something that school executives are constantly crying for. The solution often proffered is that all school psychologists should have teaching experience. At Peabody we have rather deliberately rejected this as a solution. Although we are pleased when a student has had some teaching experience, we believe there are more economical ways of acquiring the needed understandings and also that teaching experience is no guarantee that a person understands schools and school people. Does the high school teacher of algebra understand what it means to face 30 first graders on the first day of school? Can either the first grade teacher or the instructor in algebra understand what it means to be a school superintendent faced with the problem of raising money to build a sorely needed school?

One student, herself a teacher for several years, told us it was in the beginning months of her training that she first gained an overall picture of a school system and its particular characteristics as she looked at teachers, school executives, school boards, and the community. This particular student began to acquire this perspective in several ways. One was through a limited number of courses in the field of education. Another was through a core seminar for school psychology majors addressing itself to the role of the school psychologist in the light of a broadened view of the schools and an understanding of the needs and concerns, strengths and weaknesses of the personnel within them.

This core seminar makes heavy use of the experiences students acquire in the demonstration-training center which Peabody has established in a nearby town as a central aspect of the program. This field center is a cooperative project of the Peabody psychology department and the schools of Murfreesboro, Tennessee. In the schools of this town of 20,000 a psychological services center has been established which we hope in time will serve three purposes: an empirical test of our concept of functioning for the school psychologist, a training center for students, and a demonstration center for other school systems and training programs. From his first week in graduate school, the student spends the equivalent of one day per week working in this center or in some related activity. One aim for the time spent in Murfreesboro is to provide a broadened knowledge of schools, school personnel, and the community setting. Even more important, however, is the use of this center to enable the student to begin practicing, on the level appropriate for him, the role of the school psychologist we have envisaged in our program.

Our present use of Murfreesboro is somewhat as follows. For new students there is an initial shakedown period in which at least a superficial acquaintance is

gained with the school system, the community, and the staff personnel. After this, the student selects some problem or project on which he proposes either individually or with another student to work over a period of time. For the beginning student the problems are preferably ones which meet the following criteria: they are of relevance, and often of immediate concern, to school personnel; they are ones on which some empirical data are or could be fairly readily available; in their solution they will bring the student in close contact with school personnel or the community; where possible they will give the student extended contact with children.

One student, as an illustration, has concerned himself with a major problem growing out of mounting school populations: that of increasing teacher productivity. This has taken the general form of programing learning activities for self-instruction. Specifically he has developed a scrambled booklet for teaching fractions. Planning of the booklet, setting up a research design to test its effectiveness, working with teachers in experimental and control groups, and the reporting back of findings to the schools have been rich training experiences in functioning as a psychologist in a school setting.

There will be a careful selection of projects during the student's years of residence, with these graded according to his increasing competency. We hope thus to build into the student a commitment to the concept of the school psychologist as one who continually strives toward creativity and flexibility in adapting psychological knowledge and skills, as the field develops, to productive uses within the schools.

The three years of training in residence will be capped by a year's internship for our students. Such internships are a major problem, since the psychological services departments of schools are all too often overworked, and the importance of time for supervision and some financial support are ideas foreign to most school systems. We are making our personal attack upon locating the best possible internships. At the same time we see increasingly the need for more interpretation to the schools and the psychologists within them of their responsibility for this particular kind of training, and the necessity of some broadened financial support for internship centers and their staffs.

The reader may well feel, after this somewhat detailed description of our training program, that we are being unrealistic. Our model may be glamorous, but whom will we find to employ this model? Are not school officials going to be looking for a more pedestrian product—someone to give the Binets to the long waiting list, to take care of the child creating havoc in Miss Smith's room, and to supervise the group testing program?

We have felt this and believed a major problem would be to educate school executives to a realization of the usefulness to them of such psychologists. Something has occurred, however, in the past year which has caught us by surprise.

This is what seems a change in the climate of opinion among school executives as to what they would like from psychologists. The greatly increased school population, the emphasis on academic talent, and the continued concern with preventive mental health have hit the school executive far more directly than the school psychologist. As superintendents will and must try out new patterns of organization and instruction under the impact of these pressures they are eager for whatever help they can find. If the psychologist can provide data or skills to aid in solving these problems, he will find his welcome in the schools.

This is not just wishful thinking. An interesting straw in the wind comes from a recent conference sponsored by the Southern Regional Education Board on the utilization of school psychologists.<sup>1</sup> Here a tentative statement of role for the school psychologist not unlike the one sketched in this paper was tested with a number of state and local school executives from the South. In large measure the school executives in the bigger cities were quite ready to employ such persons as we have described; their main question was where and how soon they could find them.

In a way, it is a little deflating to find that ideas we

<sup>1</sup> A final report of the regional project on the training and utilization of school psychologists, of which this conference was a part, will be available in late 1959 from the Southern Regional Education Board, Atlanta, Georgia.

had thought original and promising for the future were already in the thinking of many people. On the other hand, it is probably the happiest possible state of affairs. If a climate of opinion is ready for the development of such new directions as will enable psychologists to contribute more broadly to the effective functioning of the schools and the optimal growth of the children in their care, we have only our own lack of imagination to blame if we cannot develop a more widely effective role for the psychologist in the schools.

The school psychologists of the past and present have made major strides in providing better services for the schools. Those of us concerned with the training and future role of school psychologists need to be sure we consolidate these gains and add to them others to make the school psychologist increasingly effective in the world of tomorrow. We hope our training program at Peabody may in some small measure contribute to that difficult but rewarding task of devising new and creative ways to utilize psychological skills and knowledge to foster the best possible development of the nation's children and the schools of which they are a part.

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## PSYCHOLOGISTS IN INDUSTRY IN THE UNITED STATES

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LESS than 50 years ago Hugo Münsterberg became the first psychologist in this country to lend his professional services to industry. As late as 1930 there were, in the United States, probably less than two dozen psychologists devoting their full time to industrial problems (Kornhauser, 1930). A sampling of the listings in the 1958 APA *Directory*, counting only those who list current positions with industrial concerns or industrial consulting organizations, indicates slightly more than 1,000 members of the association whose basic employment is in industry.

Just how many "industrial psychologists" there are depends on who is so classified. Psychologists in the

military and employed by research organizations who are dealing with essentially industrial problems would number about 700. This, of course, does not count college teachers who teach courses in industrial psychology and, in many instances, do part-time industrial consulting. Nor does it include qualified psychologists who are not members of the association.

But there are at least 1,000 psychologists today, as compared with less than two dozen some 30 years ago, who devote full time to employment in industry. Almost automatically one asks the question: What are all of these people doing?

Various descriptions of the functions of industrial



psychologists have been published within the past few years (Canter, 1948; McCormick, 1955; Stagner, 1957; Taft, 1946). They include, in their collective job description of the industrial psychologist, the following areas of activity: job analysis and job evaluation; salaries and wages; employee and executive selection and placement, including testing and interviewing; transfers, promotions, and terminations; training, including human relations training; employee and executive appraisal; criterion research; job satisfaction and morale; counseling and guidance, including both problem cases among workers and executive counseling; labor relations; industrial hygiene; accidents and safety; motion study; productivity; and equipment design.

Of these writers, only Canter, who conducted a questionnaire survey, offers any basis for the inclusion of the areas he listed. There is doubt, then, as to how valid this combined list may be. And, even though once valid, to what extent does it reflect present-day activities? Any attempt to develop a program to prepare psychologists for employment in industry should be based, at least in part, on an awareness of what psychologists presently so employed are doing.

Approximately 75 psychologists, all of whom had some direct connection with the field, were interviewed. They live in 20 cities in 11 states. They described their own activities and the activities of other psychologists, too. Oftentimes only one or two psychologists in a company were interviewed, but they reported on the work of others in their organization. Many of those interviewed were able to give what appeared to be rather complete reports on the activities of psychologists in other companies.

Several universities were visited, universities that have a record of turning out graduates who go into industrial psychology. Here, psychology professors who teach courses and supervise graduate research pertaining to industrial psychology were asked: "What of your former students who are now in industry? What kinds of jobs do they hold? What kinds of things are they doing?"

Psychologists in consulting firms discussed the general nature of the work they are doing for client firms. In a few instances these same people furnished information regarding the activities of staff psychologists employed by client firms. It was not possible to keep an accurate count of the number of industrial psychologists whose work was described, but it is probable that fairly accurate descriptions of the activities of at least 250 psychologists were secured.

As diverse as these activities were found to be, they do seem to fit into a general pattern, as follows: personnel selection, personnel development, human factors in design, productivity, and management.

#### PERSONNEL SELECTION

It is common to think of psychologists as test givers. Actually, however, most selection testing programs in industry are not conducted by professionally trained psychologists. When a psychologist does have a connection with a testing program, it is ordinarily in a staff capacity—although occasionally there is a psychologist directly in charge of the testing program.

*Employee selection and assignment.* The most frequent task in the field of personnel selection involves nonsupervisory employees. The activities of psychologists in this area are concerned, particularly, with the selection and validation of tests. Most commonly these are "predictor" type tests, but in some instances are achievement tests on completion of training programs. Psychologists seem to be concerned with tests more than with any other selection technique, although some attention is given to the use of personal data. No psychologist was found who is directly interviewing applicants or candidates for advancement, but psychologists are involved in the training of interviewers.

Critical appraisals of selection programs, including statistical studies of the validity of selection devices, are not found as frequently as one might wish. However, psychologists in some companies are doing validity studies and other follow-up studies. Some of these studies are subsequently published in psychological and other journals, but more frequently they are used internally only.

Too often "validity" becomes a matter of using a technique which the "boss" will accept or the client buy. A psychologist in a large grocery company expressed the situation thus: "You start working for a company like this being a psychologist. After a while you become a grocer."

*Executive selection.* The selection of managerial personnel at various levels is probably more frequently participated in by consulting psychologists from outside the firm than by regularly employed psychologists. A few very comprehensive programs were found, however, in which staff psychologists are carrying on long range evaluation studies of the selection of plant and branch managers.

In contrast to employee selection, interview techniques are here used extensively by the psychologists involved. There seems to be more of a tendency to use a "clinical" approach in the selection of personnel as the salary level of the position goes up. This is, of course, partially because the numbers involved are smaller and statistical studies are more difficult. A number of consulting firms seem to be particularly inclined to operate in the area of selection testing without benefit of validity studies. There is an unfortunate, and happily not universal, tendency for the psychologi-

cal consultant to industry to rationalize those activities which increase business. It should be emphasized that this is not true of all psychological consulting firms, but it does seem to be sufficiently frequent to be considered something of an occupational hazard.

Particularly in the field of management selection, some form of logical validity seems to satisfy many psychologists. One director of a consulting firm stated that he felt that there was "a good deal of universal validity to selection testing." There would seem to be considerable agreement with this point of view: that, since validation studies of tests for executive selection have been done in many kinds of companies, they need not be repeated in each organization as seems to be necessary with tests for rank and file workers.

*Criterion research.* Only a few psychologists are doing much in the way of criterion research. One of them called it "the big headache." Many content themselves, perhaps wisely in terms of avoiding headaches, with turnover data. Some accept whatever personnel evaluation data are available when it is needed for validation studies. Yet in one company the industrial psychology department has contributed the full time of one man for five years in developing and validating selection devices for plant managers, a major portion of which time has been spent on developing an acceptable criterion.

Practice in the use of selection devices seems to vary all the way from the unquestioning use of published tests to a few carefully conducted validation procedures. It would appear that frequently psychologists are yielding to pressures from management to accomplish immediate results and are all too commonly performing at something less than a rigorous scientific level. In addition, it must be remembered that most industrial testing programs are conducted without benefit of psychologist.

#### PERSONNEL DEVELOPMENT

The activities of psychologists in the area of personnel development can be roughly divided into four broad categories: appraisal; training, in its more narrow aspects; those broader aspects of training usually referred to as management development; and counseling.

*Appraisal.* The measurement of the results of training or the evaluation of the performance of employees at all levels is not necessarily a problem of criterion research. A few psychologists do not differentiate the two functions, but many are engaged in appraisal activities distinctly as a part of the selection and development of personnel within the organization. This will vary all the way from the construction of simple rating devices to the administration of comprehensive evaluation conferences. Psychologists are also engaged in the appraisal of job satisfaction and morale of workers.

*Employee training.* Occasionally a psychologist is employed as a training director. More commonly he provides staff assistance to a training director in addition to other duties.

There seems to have grown up within American industry a new professional field: that of training director. The training director may have taken some courses in psychology in college; in fact, he may have gone through a teacher training program and often has been a public school teacher and administrator. Sometimes he is a professional psychologist. Occasionally he has the staff assistance of a psychologist. But the field of industrial training, insofar as it concerns the teaching of skills to industrial workers, is not, on the whole, a primary responsibility of psychologists. It is, however, an important aspect of the duties of some industrial psychologists.

*Management development.* As one psychologist stated it: "This is the big emphasis!" Psychologists are engaged in organizing and conducting courses in "Management and Morale," "Sensitivity Training," "Social Organization," "Human Relations," and under a dozen or more similar designations. Sometimes the psychologist serves as a staff assistant or consultant in the organization of management development programs. Sometimes he is in charge of the program.

Within the entire area of personnel and industrial relations, psychologists are, in recent years, coming to be identified with human relations training as much, or perhaps more, than with selection testing. There are psychologists who interpret this as only a fad. There are those who see dangers, the dangers involved in utilizing psychological techniques for satisfying power motives. There are those who see in this trend that has become almost a "movement" an opportunity for psychologists to "come into their own."

While there is not complete agreement, by any means, regarding this recent development in industrial psychology, there is a considerable enthusiasm among those psychologists directly involved in various forms of "human relations" training. They see not just an opportunity for psychologists to gain power, but an opportunity for a real service. One man stated that: "Psychologists have been responsible for the fact, in industry, that a lot more decisions are now group decisions."

*Counseling.* It is not always easy to draw a line between management development functions and counseling. Psychologists do serve as counselors. But only rarely do they counsel directly with problem employees. More frequently they may counsel with the supervisor of the troubled employee. Increasingly, however, psychologists are being involved in counseling with management personnel. This field of executive counseling, involving principally clinically oriented psychologists,

has become much more a function of the consulting than of the staff psychologist. A description of the work of industrial clinical psychologists in consultation with executives is given in a recent article by Glaser (1958).

Probably close to 30% of the full-time industrial psychologists in the United States are employed by consulting firms. It is probable that at least half, and possibly many more than half, of these consultants are clinically trained and are engaging principally in the type of activity which Glaser describes—counseling with key management personnel.

This type of activity is not, of course, without its critics. Other psychologists sometimes refer to the clinical psychologists in industry as "hand holders" and accuse them of fostering dependency in order to retain clients. This criticism is no doubt unfair when applied to most clinically oriented industrial psychologists, but does reflect extreme differences in point of view as to the contributions that psychology can make to industry. The clinicians have not always refrained from criticism of what they consider the too limited approach of the "testers" in industry.

#### HUMAN FACTORS IN DESIGN

A group of psychologists who do not ordinarily think of themselves as "industrial psychologists" are, nevertheless, a part of the industrial picture. This group has grown rapidly in number. Actually, there are two related yet rather distinct groups: the psychologists concerned with human factors in equipment design and those concerned with product design for human use.

*Equipment design.* This particular field of activity, emerging since World War II, has been referred to by various names: applied experimental psychology, biotechnology, engineering psychology, human engineering, and others. Although considered by many an unfortunate choice, the designation that seems to be "taking hold" is human engineering. Human engineering is not exclusively a psychological field but is one in which psychologists participate to a major degree. The greater part of this activity, by far, is concerned with the design of military equipment. Many psychologists contributing heavily in the field are at work in university, government, and other laboratories quite independent of industry itself. Probably most of this group would think of themselves, and justifiably so, as experimental rather than as industrial psychologists. Yet there are probably 100 or more psychologists engaged in problems concerned with equipment design, including the broader aspects of systems development, in industrial firms throughout the country. The fact that they are psychologists and are employed in industry brings them within the scope of the present study.

There is a high concentration of this particular ac-

tivity in the aviation industry, particularly in those firms concerned with the design and manufacture of military aircraft and missiles.

*Product design.* When a psychologist working in this particular area was visited, he reported some considerable shock at the suggestion that he might be considered an industrial psychologist. Yet here, again, is a group, small in number and widely distributed, which is at work on psychological problems for industrial firms. Here can be grouped those who are aiding in the design of consumer products to meet human needs. There are examples not easy to differentiate clearly. Is a musical instrument *equipment* or is it a *product*? If it is the latter, then the psychologist, whose specialty is psychoacoustics, working for a manufacturer of organs and pianos is an example. A number of psychopharmacologists with pharmaceutical firms qualify in this category, as do two psychologists working on problems concerned with visual factors in relation to color appearance specifications of photographic prints.

#### PRODUCTIVITY

The study of production as affected by the length of the working day, rest pauses, lighting factors, etc. seems to have ceased to be one of the major areas of concern of psychologists in industry in America. The same thing seems to be true of motion study. Such studies seem to be done, when done at all, by industrial engineers.

Where psychologists are concerned with productivity, it is usually in relation to organizational, human relations, and other aspects of interpersonal relations. For example, one psychologist reported that he was studying productivity as one aspect of a study of the social organization of departments in a factory.

#### MANAGEMENT

Psychologists in industry sometimes become heads of their own departments and spend an increasing proportion of their time in administrative activities. Very frequently psychologists become personnel directors. When they do, they sometimes cease to think of themselves as psychologists and identify with personnel management as a profession. Many of them, however, continue to consider themselves primarily as psychologists.

This creates a problem in the classification of activities. As psychologists become personnel managers they become responsible for such activities as job analysis and job evaluation, for safety programs, and for salary and wage administration. In this study the only psychologists found who dealt with these areas were those who had become primarily personnel managers rather than psychologists.

The administrative talents of psychologists are not

overlooked by industry. Just as in the academic world psychologists become deans and college and university presidents, so in industry they rise in the management hierarchy and become vice-presidents and sometimes presidents of companies small and large. Here, again, some of them cease to include "psychologist" in their self-concepts. Others continue to think of themselves primarily as psychologists who are employing their abilities in somewhat broader fields. It is quite probable that a few of them think of industrial management as a legitimate area of applied psychology.

When psychologists become more influential in top management circles, they tend to pave the way for others of their profession. Often it is the psychologically trained vice-president in charge of industrial relations who is responsible for the inclusion of more positions for psychologists within the table of organization of the company.

#### MISCELLANEOUS

It seems unavoidable, in setting up any systematic classification, to have a few items left over. What shall we do with the area of accidents and safety? This has long been considered a part of industrial psychology. Psychologists in university and other research laboratories investigate safety factors and debate concepts of accident proneness. Yet it is difficult to find a psychologist employed by industry who spends any of his time on accident prevention. This has become the province of a profession all its own: safety engineering.

Then there is the field of labor relations. Psychologists now and then discuss the psychology of labor rela-

tions, and there are a few published studies by social psychologists. Certainly, those psychologists who become personnel and industrial relations managers are forced by the nature of their assignments into activity in this field. But, again, there seems to be little, if any, work being done in the psychology of labor relations by industrial psychologists as such. At least some amount of searching has failed to disclose a single example.

Psychologists are performing a variety of functions for industry. No one person is engaged in all of these activities. This has become so much so that it becomes impossible to define the functions of the industrial psychologist. There are personnel psychologists, clinical psychologists, experimental psychologists, and other specialties as well, all operating in an industrial context. Perhaps psychologists should come to think of their contributions to industry in these terms.

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## Psychology in the News

### Items from All Over . . .

Journals of the services are still carrying notes on the man-machine compatibility conference sponsored by the Office of Research and Development of the Department of the Army. Keynote speaker was Arthur G. Trudeau, Chief of Research and Development for the Army, and the conference Chairman was Lynn E. Baker.

The New York *Times* reports TRAFFIC ILLS TIED TO BUSINESS BOOM, and then (as subheading) Growing Industrial Town Has Poorer Safety Record. Back of these provocative headlines was the statement that City B, a quiet, more tradition-minded community, had far fewer traffic injuries and deaths than City A, which was wealthier, growing, and more competitive. The results of the study indicated that City B's better record was the result of its comparatively low level of aggression and more easygoing attitude toward life. City B also had narrow, winding streets.

The study was done for the Department of Commerce by "twelve research psychologists and technicians of the Applied Psychology Corporation." The *Times* concluded, without going too far down any narrow, winding streets, that "the price of progress . . . may be a poor traffic safety record." Semanticists may now go to work on "research psychologists" and "progress" and perhaps also on "low level of aggression."

Psychologists are still talking about a speech in which Margaret Mead, the anthropologist, said:

The gifted child usually is out of step in some way. He is nearsighted, too fat, or maybe left-handed, and he makes up his physical or other shortcomings by showing off his knowledge.

One of our correspondents suggest that Mead has "discounted all myths except those of the culture in which she lives."

The September issue of *School Life*, the official journal of the Office of Education, is devoted to testing, and five out of the eight articles were written by members of APA: Paul MacMinn, Robert C. Hall, Dolph Camp, Carroll H. Miller, Frank E. Wellman. The articles are: "For Better Understanding," "Basic Facts," "Building a Test," "Clas-

sifications," "Six Major Uses," "A Cumulative Record," "Guidance and Testing," and "Administration."

Pearl Ghormley, the secretary described in Fillmore Sanford's want ad and his comment (April 1959, p. 191) in this blue backed journal, is still happy in her job; she says:

Why, I have never felt so important in my life. I begin my day in the departmental kitchen at 7:30 A.M. by making an urnful of coffee—50 cups. Then I open the door to the office at 8:00, and the departmental day begins. . . . only a few minutes until people are talking of lunch time. . . . I take off an hour . . . the afternoon begins . . . suddenly somebody yells "Miss Gee, it's time to go home, you're working overtime again."

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### Rangers in Our Scope . . .

The first civilian ever to go through the "commando-type" course of the United States Rangers





was—naturally—a psychologist. He was Sherwood H. Peres of Alexandria, Virginia, and the Personnel Research Branch of The Adjutant General's Office. He reports he was the subject of ribbing by the other Ranger trainees, but "personal participation afforded me the opportunity to make the closest possible observation . . . of reactions, emotions, and performances."

The accompanying photos show Peres scaling a cliff in combat dress and as he appeared receiving a unique document, a civilian certificate of completion of the rugged Ranger training.

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#### *Eyes of White See Reds . . .*

With all the discussion about the success or failure of the United States exhibition in Moscow, one would think the government might ask a psychologist to examine the customer reaction. One would be right, and Ralph K. White of the United States Information Agency, who has specialized for years in public opinion and propaganda, has received a great deal of attention for his report. As the *New York Times* reported:

He has systematically and repeatedly interviewed all the guides and workers at the fair, watched the crowds, analyzed the comment books, studied the Russians' preferences

as registered on the voting machines and the questions asked of the electronic answering machine and has collected hundreds of comments overheard.

#### *White also reported:*

The Russians have great tolerance—greater than the organizers of the fair had thought—for almost any amount of material and propaganda favorable to the United States, as long as it does not depreciate the Soviet Union.

The Russians are aroused about the rearming of West Germany and were most unreceptive to attempts to justify the United States policy on Germany.

Attempts to explain the American bases around the Soviet Union with suggestions that the American people mistrust or suspect the Soviet Government encountered widespread incredulity.

White covered many other angles, also was obligated to report that he found our abstract sculpture encountered indifference or hostility, although it made a point about freedom of expression.

#### *The Greatest: You . . .*

In the September issue of the *Progressive* magazine, published at Madison, Wisconsin, George W. Albee argues that the American college professor is the greatest source of philanthropy for higher education. Albee cites the statement of the President's Commission Beyond the High School that college faculty salaries should be 80% higher than they were before World War II. The median salary of faculty members is \$5,300 for 200,000 full-time people, which means a contribution of \$800,000,000 per year, he reasons. Business and industry contributed approximately \$110,000,000 in 1957 to educational institutions and student assistance programs. Albee, former Director of manpower studies for the Joint Commission on Mental Illness and Health, points up "the fiction . . . that our colleges and universities are largely supported by generous gifts from industry and alumni." Actually he says that less than 7% comes from private gifts and grants, only 4% more comes from endowment earnings. Thus he arrives at his theme and the title of the article "The Greatest Philanthropist."

—MICHAEL AMRINE

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## Psychology in the States

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### All Psychologists are Invited . . .

So begins a note on the flyleaf of the October program meeting of a state association: "All psychologists are invited whether or not they are members of the Illinois Psychological Association." The message could be a polite gesture, a considerate editor's afterthought, a routine footnote, probably many other things.

Maybe we are investing an innocent little caption with too much meaning, but the short note has for us a certain winsome quality along with a touch of pathos—if the two can go together. We would not want to become maudlin about it, but the message seems to express with a kind of noble simplicity the belief (or at least hope) contained in some lengthier, and by now partly classic, papers: psychologists are more alike than different; long live the fraternal spirit.

If this kind of soft shelled introduction is pardonable, we would like thus to lead into a study which used both hard shelled and soft shelled psychologists as subjects. It is a survey conducted recently among members of the New York State Psychological Association by Edward Joseph Shoben, Jr. in his capacity as Chairman of both the NYSPA and the APA Committee on Public Information. We leave the actual analysis of the data to the investigator; meanwhile we have his permission to do this bit of introspection by inspection.

The effort proceeded from a desire "to clarify some pressing issues with respect to the professional conduct of psychologists, especially with respect to the ways we handle our relationships with the various publics with which we deal and who are interested in our activities." The investigator began by drawing a bead on the attributes of each respondent: his primary area of identification, the setting in which he worked, the degree to which he would consider himself involved in the professional and administrative affairs of psychological organizations. Thereafter, each subject was asked to zero in on the desirability or undesirability, as he saw it, of 17 not too hypothetical ways "in which psychologists might discharge their public information or community service responsibilities." The dichotomous

replies are interesting; the trends, we think, both significant and portentous.

Simple inspection of the data reveals some rather unequivocal feelings on several kinds of issues. Apparently psychologists *qua* psychologists feel overwhelmingly (although not unanimously) that certain types of activities are desirable. To wit, and here we cite the actual questionnaire items:

Talk with a newspaper reporter interested in a field in which you have done original research.

Participate as a professional psychologist in public lectures on the psychological foundations of prejudice, stereotyping, etc. in the American South.

They, or at least the sample of over 600, feel even more overwhelmingly (and here almost unanimously) that certain other types of activities are eminently undesirable. Again we cite the items:

Participate as a professional psychologist in the construction of a "you-can-analyze-yourself" kit, utilizing Rorschach-like cards, inventories, etc., to be distributed by mail as an aid in achieving greater understanding of one's own personality.

Serve as psychological consultant to a political party committee, the purpose of which is to devise ways of undermining public confidence in the opposing party's candidates as persons.

Not that psychologists see everything as black or white, licit or illicit, commendable or opprobrious. Certain situations, which the questionnaire poses, find the respondents notably divided. For example, as a group they are hardly of one mind with respect to the desirability or undesirability of such items as:

Volunteer your professional services to either the defense or the prosecution in a criminal case to aid in determining the accused's sanity.

Participate in a TV panel discussion concerned with psychological and psychoanalytic interpretations of such fictional characters as Hamlet, Scarlett O'Hara, Emma Bovary, Prince Mishkin, etc.

Now, we would feel that, while such features of the survey are enlightening (and we confess we do not know what they tell about the ethos of the group or anything else), the data are even more interesting with reference to differences between psychologists than with regard to differences between issues. Here we hasten to add first that the Ns for such groups of respondents as "general" ex-

perimental," "statistics and measurement," and "social" were smaller than those for respondents in any of the "applied" groups. One is entitled to wonder, too, whether the particular psychologists in the former cluster, all presumably NYSPA members, represent adequately their colleagues who are either nonmembers of NYSPA or, if members, failed to respond to the questionnaire.

With such and further reservations held in abeyance, and without tests of significance for the moment, we do note the significant [*sic*] fact that, by inspection, the direction of response for both the "general experimental" and "statistics and measurement" folks (with only one exception for the former group in one of the 17 items) parallels the responses of the total group of psychologists. The social psychologists likewise follow the group trend in 14 of the 17 items.

We leave to the investigator himself the intriguing task of a refined and detailed analysis of the results and particularly of their implications (thanking him meanwhile for the permission to "scoop" him with this grosser review). For our part, we would simply like to suggest that psychologists do seem to be psychologists first and hyphenated psychologists second, something which the Illinois note-penners seem rightly to have sensed all along.

*Footnote.* We might add, parenthetically, that the APA Central Office has recently sent to each state association secretary a mailing tape of all APA members residing in the respective states. The rosters could presumably serve all kinds of purposes—even recruitment. When the Council of Representatives voted last year that such a tape be made available yearly, we would assume its members were not unmindful of the need to have psychologists, however shelled, lend their talents to the state association effort.

\* \* \*

**Gene Kelly, Nonpsychologist, and the Matter of Images.** Some months ago we had the pleasure of watching dancer Gene Kelly use up an hour of national network time on a Sunday afternoon—mission: to get across to the public a proper "image," if we may, of the dance and the dancer. Now, we submit that the task had a not unfamiliar ring, having, as we had, just finished reading about two state association symposia centered around the "image" of psychology and psychologists. We must

add, too, that the prospect of making the ballet appealing to the average virile male citizen did not seem the easiest of assignments. Kelly did magnificently. We heard little choreographic jargon, and the array of athletes he trotted out to demonstrate grace of another sort helped us for the first time really understand the dance.

The "aha" phenomenon we experienced went beyond a sudden grasp of Terpsichore to the realization that images seem to be everybody's concern—not solely those of psychology or of the corporation. The insight was reinforced recently on hearing a pretty representative of the League of Women Voters deplore the buxom caricatures by which a leading cartoonist invariably represents the ladies of the LWV. It was further reinforced by a recent article describing the pique of polygraph operators at the absence of licensing or certification laws which would prohibit the ill trained from posing in the public eye as qualified practitioners of the art.

**Ergo, Images Operationally Defined.** In the face of these unsolicited reminders from citizens in other professions, let us cite a few contexts in which state associations have recently chosen to be visibly helpful.

*National Defense Education Act.* Rising to the occasion, the Washington State Psychological Association has actively offered its services to the Supervisor of Guidance Services for the state in connection with the NDEA. The following tangible recommendations appear in a letter from a committee appointed by WSPA for the purpose and chaired by Irwin G. Sarason:

1. WSPA assistance in the organization of local advisory committees to serve as resource facilities for individual school districts in the selection of tests
2. WSPA cooperation with the existing Test Selection Committee in the preparation of model test battery portfolios together with their rationales
3. Recommendation for the use of well trained personnel in the interpretation of test data
4. Suggestion for the formation of cooperative research units having the services of persons knowledgeable in problems of test administration, research design, and curriculum
5. Integration of differential prediction batteries into the testing program
6. Sponsorship of yearly conferences for guidance and test supervisory personnel with lectures



and seminars by experts reporting current research findings

*White House Conference on Children and Youth.* Typical of state association activities in many quarters with respect to the White House Conference is the offer of assistance from the New Hampshire Psychological Association to the Commissioner of Public Welfare in his capacity as coordinator of activities. As a consequence, a representative has been working, on behalf of the association, with a subcommittee on Psychiatric and Psychological Aspects of Child Health.

*Subliminal Perception.* Our mail recently contained several pounds' worth of material from the state of New Jersey. The documents proved to be a final report of the New Jersey Commission to Study Subliminal Projection, together with a transcript of the public hearing held on the matter.

With the assistance of the New Jersey Psychological Association, the commission did not want for expert opinion from psychologists. The bibliography contained in the final report reads like something out of an APA journal, abounding as it does in psychological references. And in the roster of "Persons Submitting Information" we identify at least 14 psychologists among the 26 persons listed, our kinfolk coming not only from New Jersey but from as far west as Pittsburgh, Illinois, and Los Angeles.

We would say that here psychological consultation was hardly outside the legislators' and the citizens' conscious level of awareness and that the psychological image in this case was decidedly supraliminal—and good.

*Psychology and the Law.* Rather than paraphrase, we lift from the *Ohio Psychologist* the following excerpt, which speaks for itself:

Governor DiSalle replied cordially to a letter expressing our concern that a member of the recently expanded Pardon and Parole Commission be a behavioral scientist with sufficient background in personality evaluation and rehabilitation to make full use of the pre-parole psychological testing which is a part of many parole evaluations.

\* \* \*

Meanwhile, Back at the Ranch . . . While psychology plays its part on the public stage, there are also things happening in its own dressing room. These are a few of them we have not had opportunity to report previously.

*Representation on Council.* Two new state coalitions have formed for the purpose of electing Representatives to the APA Council of Representatives. Arkansas and Louisiana combined to designate Sidney J. Fields as their Representative to Council. Alabama and South Carolina formed their own entente; their Representative: Paul S. Siegel. This brings to a total of five the alliances created by way of entitlement to a "joint Representative" to the APA Council. To recapitulate: 26 single Representatives and 5 joint Representatives have to date been named, these 31 folks bringing tidings from a total of 42 states to the APA Council.

*Representation Elsewhere.* APA itself will shortly have designated a Representative to the American Association of Marriage Counselors, another to the International Society for the Welfare of Cripples—both Representatives to report through the Board of Professional Affairs.

\* \* \*

*In Conclusion.* We would be more than remiss if we failed to acknowledge a couple of comely pamphlets which have recently made their debut by way of giving the public a clearer notion of what psychology and psychologists are all about.

First of the pair is a career brochure prepared by the Personnel Psychology Association of Northern Ohio (Ralph E. Liske, President) and published with the help of a generous grant from the Cleveland Foundation. Indicative of its coverage of psychology is the introductory art work: a melange of Greek *psi*'s, rats, formulas, clinical symbolism, perceptual illusions, and brains. The writers try to cover the field and, we think, do.

Designed for a different purpose but persuasive in its own way is the *Biographical Directory of Certified Psychologists* prepared by the Westchester County Psychological Association (Mary Alice White, President). The listees have little to hide and presumably much to be proud of, once having supplied information in as many as ten categories ranging from education and experience through publication and professional affiliations. And the public, we would feel, is the better for it.

—M. CURTIS LANGHORNE

Chairman

Board of Professional Affairs

ERASMUS L. HOCH

Administrative Officer

State and Professional Affairs

## Notes and News

**Deadline for Annual Convention.** For the 1960 Annual Convention the deadline for receipt of abstracts and summaries of papers is March 1, 1960, and for symposia it is March 15, 1960. Details will be in the "Call for Papers and Symposia" in the January issue. Members are invited to submit topics for symposia to be sponsored by the APA Convention Program Committee to: Harold Guetzkow, Chairman; 1333 Sixteenth Street N.W.; Washington 6, D. C.

During the 1959 Annual Convention in Cincinnati the second **Annual APA Coffee Hour for Visitors from Abroad** attracted 34 psychologists from 17 lands plus numerous hospitable APA members. The getting acquainted process was greatly facilitated in the relaxed setting of tables and chairs in the Hotel Sinton Crystal Room. The International Council of Psychologists again provided a group of gracious hostesses, chaired by the council President, Dorothea Ewers. Inviting posters were donated by the Interamerican Society of Psychology and by the Division 2 Committee on Psychology in Foreign Lands. APA, through its Committee on International Relations, underwrote the 10 gallons of coffee and 12 pounds of cookies consumed. It was a pleasant two hours of personal contact with our visitors.—HENRY P. DAVID, *Trenton, New Jersey.*

The **American Board of Examiners in Professional Psychology** is pleased to announce the award of its diploma to additional members of the profession. Awards have been made to the following 61 candidates who have satisfactorily completed both written and oral examinations in addition to all other requirements of training, experience, and endorsements:

### CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY

Leonard Bernstein	William E. Dattel
Trent E. Bessent	Seymour Epstein
Jack Blumenkrantz	Ira Friedman
Earl C. Brown	Mildred E. Gebhard
Maurice O. Burke	Martin R. Gluck
Francis M. Canter	Fred J. Goldstein
Joe T. Carter	Stanley Goldstein

George M. Guthrie	Frances R. Racusen
George F. Harding	Michael M. Reece
Verda T. Heisler	Marvin Reznikoff
Thomas W. Howard	Lewis J. Sherman
Winifred Ingram	Reuben J. Silver
Frederick H. Kanfer	J. Marvin Spiegelman
Francis W. King	George Spivack
Alvin A. Lasko	John A. Stern
David Levine	Louis H. Stewart
Murray Levine	Murray S. Stoppel
William H. Lyle	Marvin Waldman
John J. McMillan	Sheldon E. Waxenberg
Joseph M. Masling	William M. Wheeler
Robert C. Misch	Harley R. Wideman
Hamilton M. Moody	Gerald S. Wieder
Martin L. Nass	Irving Wolf
Cesareo D. Pena	Carl N. Zimet
Melvin Perlman	Marvin Zuckerman

### COUNSELING PSYCHOLOGY

Emanuel M. Berger	Karl V. Schultz
Herbert R. Lotz	

### INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Alexis M. Anikeeff	James J. Kirkpatrick
Marvin D. Dunnette	Ivan N. McCollom
Robert Fitzpatrick	Richard S. Melton
Donald L. Grant	Allyn M. Munger

According to ABEPP policy, all previous awards have been announced in the *American Psychologist*. To date, ABEPP has made a total of 1,464 awards of its diploma. These awards are distributed as follows:

Diploma awarded to senior members of the APA and the Canadian Psychological Association with waiver of written and oral examination .....	1,086
Diploma awarded to members of the APA and the Canadian Psychological Association by satisfactory performance on written and oral examinations ....	378
	1,464

*Psychological Abstracts* urgently needs persons who can read and abstract **Japanese and Russian psychological materials**. Volunteers for abstracting in other languages or for any self-defined field in psychology are welcome. Write to: Horace B. English; 1945 North High Street; Columbus 10, Ohio.

**Correction.** The title of the paper by Malcolm R. Westcott in the Conditioning paper reading ses-

sion appearing on page 573 of the September 1959 issue should read "The Acquisition of a Conditioned Cardiac Acceleration in Humans."

**Rosalea A. Schonbar**, of Teachers College, Columbia University, was observer for the APA at the twelfth Annual Meeting of the World Federation for Mental Health in Barcelona, Spain, on August 30–September 4, 1959.

**Arthur J. Bindman**, of the Massachusetts Department of Mental Health, represented the APA at the inauguration of Asa Smallidge Knowles as President of Northeastern University on September 8, 1959.

**Victor Raimy**, of the University of Colorado, and **Lawrence S. Rogers**, of the Denver Veterans Administration Hospital, represented the APA at the seventh National Conference of the United States National Commission for UNESCO in Denver, Colorado, on September 29–October 2, 1959.

**Clarence V. Hudgins**, of the Clarke School for the Deaf, Northampton, Massachusetts, represented the APA at the inauguration of Thomas Corwin Mendenhall as President of Smith College on October 15, 1959.

**Crusa Adelman Holt**, of the Child Development Center of New York, died on August 23, 1959.

**Harry Dexter Kitson**, Professor Emeritus of Teachers College, Columbia University, died on September 25, 1959.

**Dorothy Y. Lee**, of New York City, died in 1959.

**Fern McGrath**, of Waldwick, New Jersey, died in 1959.

**William W. Martin**, of Greensboro, North Carolina, died on June 7, 1959.

**John P. Tilton**, of Medford, Massachusetts, died on August 27, 1959.

**Gregory Zilboorg**, of New York City, died in September 1959.

The American Institute for Research announces the addition of the following psychologists to its research staff:

**David Angell**, formerly with the Human Resources Research Office, is now in the AIR Washington Office.

**Leslie J. Briggs**, from the Hughes Aircraft Company, has joined the staff of the AIR Western Office in Santa Barbara, California.

**Augustus D. Daily**, formerly with the Allegheny Ludlum Steel Corporation, is in the AIR Western Office.

**Harris H. Shettell**, from the St. Louis Perceptual Development Laboratory, is in the AIR Pittsburgh Office.

**Donald Armsby** has resigned from the Somerset State Hospital to become a Program Director with the Applied Psychology Corporation in Virginia.

Four APA members attending the fall meeting of the Army Scientific Advisory Panel were **Harry F. Harlow**, University of Wisconsin; **William A. Hunt**, Northwestern University; **Ernest J. McCormick**, Purdue University; and **Roger W. Russell**, Indiana University.

At Wake Forest College, **John E. Williams** has joined the staff to organize a Center for Psychological Services; **Robert C. Beck** is organizing the courses in experimental psychology.

**A. W. Belden** has joined the staff of the Whit-tier Office of the Lyon Mental Hygiene Clinic.

**Austin W. Berkeley** has been appointed Chairman of the Department of Psychology in the College of Liberal Arts and Graduate School at Boston University.

**Jane Berry** has joined the staff of the Research Center on Family Development recently established by Community Studies, Inc. in Kansas City, Missouri.

**Walter Blumenfeld**, of the University of San Marcos, has been named an honorary member of the Sociedad Argentina de Psicologia.

**Daniel Brower** has been appointed Associate Professor of Psychology at Montclair State College.

The Lockheed Missiles and Space Division announces the addition to its Satellite Systems organization of **Joe D. Brower**, formerly with the Lytle Corporation, and **Robert L. Martindale**, formerly in the Human Factors Division at Kirtland Air Force Base.

**Oscar A. Parsons**, formerly at Duke University, has joined the staff of the Psychology Department at the University of Oklahoma. **Richard G. Cannicott** has resigned to accept a position at Los Angeles City College.

**Loren Chapman**, formerly at the University of Chicago, has been appointed Associate Professor of Psychology at the University of Kentucky.

**Arthur W. Chickering**, formerly at Monmouth College, has been appointed Director of Evaluation at Goddard College.

**John N. McCall** has been appointed an Assistant Professor in the Psychology Department at the University of Buffalo. **Walter Cohen** is on sabbatical leave in England and the Continent to continue his studies in Perception.

**Frank M. duMas** has accepted appointment as an Associate Editor of *Psychological Reports*.

**David L. Easley**, formerly with the Martin Aircraft Company, and **John P. Smith**, formerly at Moorhead State College, have joined the staff of the Armor Human Research Unit at Fort Knox, Kentucky.

**Mortimer R. Feinberg**, of the City College of New York, has resigned from his position at the Research Institute of America.

**Stanton B. Felzer** has been elected a partner in the firm of Harry J. Woehr and Associates in Philadelphia.

**Sidney A. Fine**, of the United States Employment Service, is on leave of absence as a Fellow of the Graduate Council of George Washington University in Washington, D. C.

**Brenda Katz Goodrick** has been appointed Supervising Psychologist and **Lois Franklin** has joined the staff of the Psychiatric Child Guidance Clinics of the St. Louis Municipal Health Center.

**Curtis A. Gilgash**, formerly at Dillard University, has been appointed Chairman of the Department of Psychology at MacMurray College.

**Donald D. Glad** has become Director of the Department of Psychology and **Virginia B. Glad** has accepted a position as Research Associate in the Department of Research at the Greater Kansas City Mental Health Foundation.

**Martin R. Gluck**, formerly with the Worcester Youth Guidance Center, is now Chief Psychologist of the South Hills Child Guidance Center in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

**Wallace Gobetz**, of New York University, has been appointed area consultant to the Veterans Administration in Counseling Psychology and Vocational Rehabilitation.

**Norman B. Gordon** has accepted an appointment as Associate Professor of Psychology in the Graduate School of Education at Yeshiva University.

**Charles Grayden**, formerly at the Jamestown State Hospital, has joined the clinical psychology staff of the Mental Health Institute in Independence, Iowa.

**Herbert W. Gross** has accepted the position of Chief Psychologist at the Guidance Institute of Berks County, Reading, Pennsylvania.

**Ruth Anne Hardwick** has accepted a position as clinical assistant in the Illinois State Office of Public Instruction, Division of Education for Exceptional Children.

**Samuel P. Hayes**, Director of the Foundation for Research on Human Behavior, has also been appointed Professor of Economics at the University of Michigan to help formulate a program of instruction, research, and services in the economic development of underdeveloped countries.

**Harold L. Henderson** has been granted a leave of absence from Hofstra College to work as Director of Research for Drivers Safety Service, Inc.

**J. E. Hulett, Jr.** has resigned the chairmanship of the Department of Sociology at the University of Illinois; during the second semester of the current academic year he will be on sabbatical leave at Princeton University.

The Psychological Services of the Jewish National Home for Asthmatic Children at Denver includes the following staff: **Lewis Bernstein**, Director; **Louis Rutledge**, Senior Clinical Psychologist; **Kenneth Purcell**, Senior Research Psychologist; **Abby B. Adams**, Clinical Psychologist; and **John J. Conger**, of the University of Colorado School of Medicine, Consultant in Psychology.

**Leonard Kingsley**, formerly at Walter Reed Army Hospital, is now Chief of the Clinical Psychology Service at the Mental Hygiene Consulta-



tion Service, United States Army Hospital, Fort Meade, Maryland.

**Rudolf Lassner**, formerly with the Cherokee Mental Health Institute, is now Clinical Psychologist at the Brown County Child Guidance Clinic, Green Bay, Wisconsin.

**Zella Luria**, formerly at the University of Illinois, and **A. William Mills**, from Harvard University, have joined the staff of the Department of Psychology at Tufts University.

Changes in personnel in the Department of Guidance and Psychological Services, Richmond Public Schools, Richmond, Virginia: **Doris McKinney** resigned to join the staff of Bennett College; **Rudolph F. Wagner** was appointed Chief Psychologist by the School Board.

**Howard Maher**, formerly at the University of Pennsylvania, has become head of the Psychology Department at the University of Akron.

**Eugene Mariani** is Program Director of the new Central Minnesota Mental Health Center in St. Cloud.

**William A. Mason**, formerly at the University of Wisconsin, and **John M. Warren**, formerly at Stanford University, have joined the staff of the Yerkes Laboratories as Research Associates.

The Greater Kansas City Psychological Association is establishing the **Lorenz Misbach Memorial Library** fund. A Misbach Memorial section of the library at the University of Kansas City will contain a collection of psychological literature. Make your contributions payable to: Greater Kansas City Psychological Association; c/o Betty Eyles; Rehabilitation Center; 3600 Troost; Kansas City, Missouri.

**Clifford T. Morgan** will spend the current academic year as Visiting Professor of Psychology at the University of Wisconsin.

**John J. Morgenstern** has resigned his position with the Warren County Association for Mental Health to become School Psychologist for the Glens Falls Public School System, Glens Falls, New York, and to enter private practice.

**M. Scott Myers**, formerly at the University of Tehran and with the Governmental Affairs Insti-

tute, has accepted the position of Personnel Administrator for Development on the Central Staff of Texas Instruments in Dallas.

**Leonard A. Ostlund** has returned to Kent State University after spending last year as Fulbright Visiting Professor of Social Psychology at the Université de Rennes and the Université de Bordeaux and as guest lecturer at the Sorbonne in Paris and the University of Madrid.

**Edna R. Oswalt** has retired from Kent State University after twenty-three years of service as Director of the Psychological Clinic, Professor of Psychology, and Head of the Department of Special Education. She is currently Visiting Professor of Psychology at Westminster College.

**Howard E. Page** has been appointed Special Assistant to the Head of the Office of Special International Programs, National Science Foundation in Washington, D. C.

**William R. Perl**, formerly at the United States Army Hospital in Munich, is now Chief of the Psychology Department at the District of Columbia Children's Center in Laurel, Maryland. **Thaddeus J. Taylor**, formerly at the National Institute of Mental Health, has joined the staff of the department.

**Sidney L. Pressey** has retired from Ohio State University and accepted a position as Visiting Professor of Educational Psychology at the University of California at Los Angeles during the current academic year.

**Howard Ranken**, formerly at the University of Pennsylvania, has joined the staff of the Psychology Department at Haverford College.

**Gustave J. Rath**, formerly of the IBM Research Center, has joined the Systems and Advance Engineering Department of the Admiral Corporation.

**Gerald A. Reynolds** is now Director of the Psychology Department at Mississippi State Hospital.

**Leo Gold** has become Director of the Psychology Department at Riverside Hospital in New York City, replacing **M. David Diamond** who has resigned to continue private practice. **Raya Kowarsky** is a recent addition to the staff.

**Norman Ginsburg**, formerly at the New York Psychiatric Institute, has been appointed Assistant Professor of Psychology at Roosevelt University. **Helen A. Cohen** has joined the staff as an Instructor in Psychology, replacing **Frank Blaisdell**.

**Max Rosenbaum** will be the 1960 Research Coordinator of the fourth Annual Institute of the American Group Psychotherapy Association to be held January 27-28, 1960 in New York City.

**Lawrence Schlesinger**, formerly at the University of Michigan, has joined the social science staff of Monteith College, a newly formed, Ford Foundation supported, experimental school at Wayne State University.

**R. F. Schweiker**, formerly with the Educational Research Corporation, is now in the Mathematics Department at Goddard College.

**Robert R. Sears**, of Stanford University, was a Visiting Professor during the summer session at the University of Hawaii and addressed the Hawaii Psychological Association at its Annual Meeting in July 1959.

**Joseph L. Seminara**, formerly at Picatinny Arsenal, has accepted a position in the Human Engineering Department, Missiles and Space Division, Lockheed Aircraft Corporation in Sunnyvale, California.

**Reuben Silver**, formerly at the Fergus Falls State Hospital, has been appointed Assistant Professor of Clinical Psychology at the University of Minnesota.

**Robert E. Silverman** has been appointed Assistant Dean of the University College of Arts and Science at New York University.

**Eduard Simson**, formerly with the Devereux Foundation, has been appointed Chief Psychologist at the Hunterdon Medical Center, near Princeton, New Jersey.

**Harold W. Stevenson**, formerly at the University of Texas, has been appointed Professor and Director of the Institute of Child Development and Welfare, University of Minnesota.

**Harold S. Stulbaum**, formerly with the Klein Institute for Aptitude Testing, has been appointed

School Psychologist for the Franklin Square Public Schools, Long Island, New York.

The Psychology Department of Syracuse University announces the following appointments and changes in its staff:

**David E. Hunt**, as Associate Professor, formerly at Yale University

**Ronald B. Kurz**, as Assistant Professor, formerly at Indiana University

**Judson Mills**, as Assistant Professor, formerly at HumRRO, Monterey, California

**Warren Roberts**, as Assistant Professor, formerly at the Medical School of the University of California, Los Angeles

**C. Robert Pace**, departmental Chairman, is on leave of absence at the Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioral Sciences; **Eric F. Gardner** will be acting Chairman during the current academic year.

**Harry W. Hepner** has retired and is now Professor Emeritus.

**James V. Tattan**, formerly at the Detroit Receiving Hospital, is now Director of the Department of Psychology, Rehabilitation Institute of Metropolitan Detroit.

**Arthur L. Tollefson** has been appointed Manager of the Pasadena Counseling Center of the Western Personnel Institute.

**Jack Buel**, **John A. Cox, Jr.**, and **Kenneth C. Kramer** have joined the faculty of the Psychology Department at Trinity University.

**Mark M. Tucker**, formerly at the University of Kentucky, has been appointed Professor of Special Education at Southern Illinois University (Southwestern Campus).

In the Department of Psychology at the University of North Dakota:

**Betty Jane Bosdell**, formerly at Chico State College, has accepted an appointment as Assistant Professor in Counseling Psychology.

**Kenneth Heller**, formerly at Pennsylvania State University, has been appointed Assistant Professor in Clinical Psychology.

**Roger Myers**, formerly at Ohio State University, has been appointed Assistant Professor of Psychology and Director of the newly established University Counseling Center.

In the Department of Psychology at the University of Pennsylvania:

**Karl Miller** has resigned as Professor and as Dean of the College for Women.

**Eugene Galanter** and **Julius Wishner** have returned from leaves of absence spent, respectively, at the Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioral Sciences and at Harvard University.

**Eugene Eisman**, of the University of California, Riverside, is spending the academic year on a postdoctoral National Science Foundation Fellowship.

New appointments in the department include **R. Duncan Luce**, **Philip Teitelbaum**, **F. Robert Brush**, and **Robert B. Cairns**.

**Dunlap and Associates, Inc.** announces the addition to its professional staff of **Charles L. Vaughn**, formerly with the Psychological Corporation.

The following personnel changes have occurred in Psychology Services, Department of Medicine and Surgery, Veterans Administration:

**Alexander W. Astin** has been appointed to the Cooperative Research Laboratory, VA Hospital, Baltimore, Maryland.

**Richard C. Cowden** has transferred from the Lincoln VA Hospital to the Psychology Service, VA Hospital, Leech Farm Road, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

**Joseph G. Dawson** has resigned from the Psychology Service, VA Hospital, Augusta, Georgia.

**Nicholas De Palma** has been appointed to the Psychology Service, VA Hospital, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

**Jorge J. Dieppa** has resigned as Chief Clinical Psychologist, VA Mental Hygiene Clinic, San Juan, Puerto Rico.

**Gerald M. Fishbein** has been appointed to the Clinical Psychology Staff, VA Hospital, Brooklyn, New York.

**Merton Friedman** has transferred from the Boston VA Hospital to the position of Chief Clinical Psychologist, VA Hospital, Providence, Rhode Island.

**Sidney Gelfand**, a graduate of the VA Psychology Training Program, University of Utah, has been appointed to the Psychology Service, VA Hospital, Palo Alto, California.

**Harold T. Ginsburg** has transferred from the Jefferson Barracks VA Hospital to the Psychology Staff, VA Hospital, Topeka, Kansas.

**David P. Grace** has been appointed to the Clinical Psychology Staff, VA Hospital, Chillicothe, Ohio.

**Clarence H. Hartman** has transferred from the Lincoln VA Hospital to the position of Chief Clinical Psychologist, VA Center, Sioux Falls, South Dakota.

**John H. McCormack** has transferred from the Kansas City VA Hospital to the position of Area Chief Psychologist, VA Area Medical Office, Columbus, Ohio.

**Henry B. Matty**, a graduate of the VA Psychology Training Program, Florida State University, has been appointed to the Psychology Service, VA Hospital, Coral Gables, Florida.

**Roger K. Merritt** has been appointed to the Psychology Service, VA Center, Shreveport, Louisiana.

**Arnold L. Miller** has resigned from the Psychology Service, VA Hospital, Danville, Illinois.

**Joe F. Mock** has resigned as Chief Clinical Psychologist, VA Hospital, Huntington, West Virginia.

**Helaine L. Moody** has been appointed to the Psychology Service, VA Hospital, Danville, Illinois.

**Robert P. Morris**, a graduate of the VA Psychology Training Program, Boston University, has been appointed to the Psychology Service, VA Hospital, Brockton, Massachusetts.

**Arthur Orzeck** has transferred from the Sepulveda VA Hospital to the position of Chief Clinical Psychologist, VA Hospital, Kansas City, Missouri.

**John E. Overall** has been appointed to the Central NP Chemotherapy Research Unit, VA Hospital, Perry Point, Maryland.

**George S. Rhodes** has resigned from the Vocational Counseling Service, VA Hospital, Topeka, Kansas.

**Arthur Rogers** has been appointed to the Psychology Service, VA Hospital, Indianapolis, Indiana.

**Felman Sorsby** has transferred from the Little Rock VA Hospital to the Psychology Service, VA Hospital, Danville, Illinois.

**Robert Swanson** has resigned from the Clinical Psychology Staff, VA Mental Hygiene Clinic, Des Moines, Iowa.

**Donald W. Sydow** has transferred from the Sioux Falls VA Center to the position of Chief Clinical Psychologist, VA Mental Hygiene Clinic, Omaha, Nebraska.

**Earl S. Taulbee** has been appointed Chief Clinical Psychologist, VA Hospital, Lincoln, Nebraska.

**F. Fagen Thompson** has transferred from the North Little Rock Vocational Counseling Service to the Psychology Service, VA Center, Shreveport, Louisiana.

**J. Arthur Waites** has transferred from the Los Angeles VA Center to the position of Chief, Psychology Service, VA Hospital, Brockton, Massachusetts.

**Duncan E. Walton** has been appointed to the Psychology Service, VA Hospital, East Orange, New Jersey.

**Robert Weiss** has been appointed to the Psychology Service, VA Hospital, Palo Alto, California.

**Joseph D. Warner** has resigned from the Wilson County Mental Health Clinic to become Co-Director of the Mental Health Clinic of the Guilford County Health Department, Greensboro, North Carolina.

**Douglas Y. Cornog**, **Walter J. Fightmaster**, and **Arthur L. Korotkin** are new members of the Human Factors Group, Weapons Systems Engineering Department of the Westinghouse Air Arm Division in Baltimore.

**Walter L. Wilkins** has resigned the chairmanship of the Department of Psychology at St. Louis University to become Scientific Director of the United States Navy Medical Neuropsychiatric Research Unit in San Diego, California.

**Lawrence R. Zeitlin**, formerly with the Bendix Systems Division, is now at Dunlap and Associates, Inc. in Santa Monica, California.

The following rosters of officers have been announced:

**Baltimore Clinical Psychology Association**

President: William Zielonka  
President-elect: Morris Roseman  
Corresponding Secretary: Paul Imre  
Treasurer: Harriet Aronson

**New York Society of Clinical Psychologists**

President: Samuel Pearlman  
President-elect: Harry Sands  
Past President: Thomas E. Tierney  
Treasurer: Emanuel F. Hammer  
Executive Secretary: Wallace Gobetz

**Society for Projective Techniques, Philadelphia Division**

President: Stanton B. Felzer  
Secretary-Treasurer: Patricia M. Bricklin

The American Academy of Arts and Sciences announces three prizes of \$1,000 each to be awarded annually to the authors of unpublished monographs in the fields of the humanities, social sciences, and physical and biological sciences. Recipients of these prizes will be expected to make their own arrangements for publication. The final date in 1960 for receipt of manuscripts by the committee on awards is October 1. Full details concerning these prizes may be obtained by sending a stamped self-addressed envelope to: Committee on Monograph Prizes, American Academy of Arts and Sciences; 280 Newton Street, Brookline Station; Boston 46, Massachusetts.

Daniel R. Miller and Guy E. Swanson, both of the University of Michigan, have received the **E. A. Burgess Award** for *The Changing American Parent*, which was designated as the best published monograph in 1957-58 pertaining to the family. The E. A. Burgess Award for 1959-60 will be awarded for the best research design for family research. Information, including research outlines, may be obtained from: Charles Bowerman; University of North Carolina; Chapel Hill, North Carolina.

In recognition of the need for social scientists in medicine and the health fields, **Harvard University** has begun a fellowship program to draw together people and ideas from this research frontier. Promising social scientists will be offered specialized

training and field experience under a grant from the National Institute of Mental Health: rigorous training in the social scientific disciplines, broad acquaintance with the content and research strategies of medical-social science problems, field experience stressing problems of medical relevance. Fellowships will be offered at each level of graduate training from the first through the postdoctoral level. Inquiries should be addressed to: Robert N. Wilson; Judge Baker Guidance Center; 295 Longwood Avenue; Boston 15, Massachusetts.

Two two-year postdoctoral fellowships in general clinical psychology and one in child psychology are being offered by the **Menninger Foundation** to start September 1960. The program provides supervised experience in diagnostic testing with special reference to assessing patients' suitability for hospital treatment, psychotherapy, or psychoanalysis. Supervised experience in individual psychotherapy is also offered, as is a special program of advanced seminars and workshops. The fellowships provide a USPHS stipend of \$6,000 for the first year and \$7,000 the second year; \$3,600 of the annual stipend is tax exempt. An applicant must have a PhD degree in clinical psychology with a minimum of one year of supervised clinical experience. For information and application forms, write to: Martin Mayman, Director of Psychological Training; The Menninger Foundation; Topeka, Kansas.

The Division of Medical Sciences of the **National Academy of Sciences-National Research Council** is accepting applications for grants-in-aid of research for consideration by the *Committee for Research in Problems of Sex*. The committee is concerned primarily with encouraging research involving endocrinological, neurological, psychological, anthropological, phylogenetic, and genetic studies which give promise of shedding light on the mechanisms underlying sexual behavior with special emphasis on the higher mammals and man. Completed applications for the fiscal year 1960-1961 should be postmarked on or before January 15, 1960. Preliminary inquiries should be addressed to: Room 411, Division of Medical Sciences, National Academy of Sciences-National Research Council; 2101 Constitution Avenue, N.W.; Washington 25, D. C.

Limited funds are available to the **National Science Foundation** for the support of travel by



American scientists to international scientific congresses. Among the congresses selected for such support is the sixteenth *International Congress of Psychology*, which will meet in Bonn, Germany, July 31–August 6, 1960. Grants will be made to individuals, and an attempt will be made to approximate round trip, tourist, air fare between the applicant's home institution and Bonn. No allowance will be made for living expenses. Application forms may be obtained by writing to: National Science Foundation; Washington 25, D. C. The closing date for receipt of applications is February 15, 1960. Awards will be announced within two months of the closing date.

The *Division of Biological and Medical Sciences* of the National Science Foundation announces that the next closing date for receipt of basic research proposals in the life sciences is January 15, 1960. Proposals received prior to that date will be reviewed at the spring meetings of the foundation's advisory panels, and disposition will be made approximately four months following the closing date. Proposals received after the January 15, 1960 closing date will be reviewed following the summer closing date of May 15, 1960. Inquiries should be addressed to: National Science Foundation; Washington 25, D. C.

Applications are being accepted by the National Science Foundation for postdoctoral and for graduate fellowships. The closing date for receipt of applications for the postdoctoral fellowships is December 22, 1959; for the graduate fellowships, January 1, 1960. Awards will be made in the mathematical, physical, medical, biological, engineering, and other sciences, including anthropology, psychology (other than clinical), and interdisciplinary fields. To be eligible, applicants must be citizens of the United States with special aptitude for advanced training and must hold the doctoral degree or have the equivalent in training or experience. Fellows will be selected on the basis of ability as evidenced by letters of recommendation and other evidence of scientific attainment. Application materials may be obtained from: Fellowship Office, *National Academy of Sciences–National Research Council*; 2101 Constitution Avenue, N.W.; Washington 25, D. C.

Support for research in education is provided by the **United States Office of Education** through its *Cooperative Research Program*. The purpose of

the program is to develop new knowledge about major problems in education or to devise new applications of existing knowledge in solving such problems. Under present procedures, the Office of Education receives proposals for specific research projects from institutions of higher education and from state departments of education. For further information, write to: Cooperative Research Program; Office of Education; United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; Washington 25, D. C.

The United States Office of Education, under Public Law 85-926, has allocated 150 graduate fellowships to 50 state educational agencies and to 14 universities to be awarded by the participating institutions for training as instructors and directors of programs in colleges and universities for the preparation of teachers of the mentally retarded. Stipends range from \$2,000 to \$2,800 plus allowances. To receive a fellowship under this program, an individual must be an American citizen, have completed the baccalaureate degree, and have had one year of teaching or supervisory experience with mentally retarded children. For further information, write to: *Exceptional Children and Youth Section*; Instruction, Organization, and Services Branch; Division of State and Local School Systems; Office of Education; United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; Washington 25, D. C.

The **University of Michigan** through its *Center for the Study of Higher Education* will again offer for the academic year 1960–61 fellowships of two types: (a) Michigan Fellows in College Administration for study, internships, research, and other experiences intended to prepare for college and university administration; on a postdoctoral basis, or equivalent, the fellowships cover living and incidental expenses up to a maximum of \$8,000. (b) The graduate fellowships in higher education are for predoctoral students who need assistance in completing the degree and who show promise of contributing to research on the problems of higher education; they vary in amounts from \$1,000 to \$3,000, depending upon need. The deadline for applications is February 1. Application forms and a circular descriptive of the program may be obtained from: Center for the Study of Higher Education, University of Michigan; Ann Arbor, Michigan.

The University of Michigan announces fellow-

ships for advanced study in social work and social science made possible through grants from the Russell Sage Foundation and the United States Public Health Service. Stipends range from \$600 to \$3,750. Fellowship applications will be received up to February 1, 1960. For detailed information and application forms, write to: Henry Meyer; *School of Social Work*, University of Michigan; Ann Arbor, Michigan.

The Psychology Department at Loyola University (Chicago) has opened a new **animal behavior laboratory**; funds for the laboratory, equipment, and stipends to graduate students were made possible through a grant under provision of the National Defense Education Act. Helmuth H. Schaefer is Director of the laboratory.

The National Institute of Mental Health awarded a research grant to Herman Feifel, of the VA Mental Hygiene Clinic, Los Angeles, for study of **attitudes toward death** in terminally ill persons.

Under the auspices of a grant from the United States Office of Rehabilitation, the University of Arizona has established a **Department of Rehabilitation** with David Wayne Smith as Director. The program will be a cooperative activity involving such divisions of the university as the College of Education; the School of Home Economics; the School of Nursing; and the Departments of Anthropology, Psychology, and Sociology.

Austin W. Berkeley and Murray L. Cohen, of Boston University, have received a grant from the National Institute of Mental Health to study visual aftereffects in an attempt to develop a method for early diagnosis of brain damage.

Under its **Laboratory Equipment Development Program**, the National Science Foundation awarded a grant to Mary John Catherine, of Clarke College, for development of reliable and inexpensive variable speed memory drum, interval timer, and psychogalvanometer for experimental psychology courses.

Gallaudet College and the American Speech and Hearing Association have established a **National Index on Deafness, Speech, and Hearing**. The purpose of the NIDSH is to index and abstract

all professional literature pertaining to deafness, speech, and hearing. Not only will present and future literature be included but also all of the relevant past literature. The index will make the collected material available through a regular, professional publication. The NIDSH is made possible in part by a grant from the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation. For further information, write to: Stephen P. Quigley, Director; National Index on Deafness, Speech and Hearing; Gallaudet College; Washington 2, D. C.

The Behavior Research Laboratory of the University of Colorado has prepared 20 six-minute sound motion pictures useful in the study of **person-perception**. Data from the following were obtained: (a) the Vocabulary Subtest of the WAIS, (b) the California Psychological Inventory, (c) self-rating scales which parallel the 18 scales of the CPI, (d) the Psychological Principles Survey, a test developed at the Behavior Research Laboratory to measure knowledge of psychological principles underlying social behavior. Further information about the films may be obtained by writing to: Kenneth R. Hammond, Director; Behavior Research Laboratory, University of Colorado; Boulder, Colorado.

A research project to develop a "**Pictorial Interest Inventory** for Use with the Deaf" will be undertaken by Gallaudet College, supported by a grant from the United States Office of Vocational Rehabilitation. Harold Geist will serve as Principal Investigator.

The Psychology Department of Western Reserve University has received a training grant from the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation to expand the department's coverage of the psychological aspects of **physical disability**. The new training program will be conducted by F. C. Shontz and S. L. Fink.

The Office of Vocational Rehabilitation has awarded the Southern Illinois University Department of Speech Correction a grant to inaugurate a graduate training program in **speech pathology and audiology**.

Drexel Institute of Technology has been awarded a grant by the United States Office of Education for an experiment, under the direction of Roland

E. Johnston, Jr., on the use of magnetic recordings and visual displays as aids in teaching introductory psychology to freshmen students.

A grant has been awarded by the National Institutes of Health to Robert D. Meade, of Trinity College, for research on motivation and time perception aimed toward formulating a theory of time perception.

The report of the **International Conference on Human Relations** held in Berg en Dal, Nijmegen, on September 3-15, 1956 is now available. For further information, write to: Nationale Stichting 'Mens en Samenleving'; Wilhelminapark 26, Utrecht, Netherlands.

On March 13-14, 1959 a conference on Raymond B. Cattell's personality questionnaires and objective tests was organized by the Psychometrical Laboratory of the Polish Academy of Sciences. Papers were read on various aspects of Cattell's work and on problems relating to the Polish adaptation of the questionnaires.

At the thirty-first Annual Convention of the Florida Public Health Association on September 24-26, 1959, a symposium on "How can Research be Carried out in a Mental Health Setting" was held with panelists from psychology (Samuel Karson), psychiatry, and social work.

A meeting on Animal Psychology was held on September 25, 1959 at the Marine Biology Laboratory in Arcachon (Gironde) under the direction of the *Section on Experimental Psychology and Animal Behavior* of the International Union of Biological Sciences. For further information, write to the Secretary General of the section: G. Viaud; Laboratoire de Psychologie Animale, Institut de Zoologie et Biologie Générale; 12 Rue de l'Université, Strasbourg.

The tenth Annual National Music Therapy Conference was held on October 9-11, 1959 at Michigan State University.

The topic of the October 16 meeting of the Eastern Group Psychotherapy Society (350 Central Park West; New York City) was "The 'Baby' in an Activity Group."

The topic of the October 21 meeting of the Association for Psychiatric Treatment of Offenders (9 East 97 Street; New York 29, New York) was "The Interplay of Psychiatric and Social Factors in Delinquency and Crime."

The first Joint Armed Services Testing Conference was held October 27-29, 1959 at the United States Naval Examining Center in Great Lakes, Illinois. The purpose of the conference is to define various approaches to achievement test development, grading, analysis, evaluation, research, and processing of virtually millions of examination returns per year.

A series of four Mead Swing Lectures were delivered on October 27-29, 1959 at Oberlin College by B. F. Skinner on the topic "The Design of a Culture."

The twenty-seventh Thomas William Salmon Lecture at the New York Academy of Medicine (2 East 103 Street; New York City) on December 2, 1959 will be by Curt Paul Richter on "Biological Clocks in Medicine and Psychiatry."

Gardner Murphy, of the Menninger Foundation, will deliver the first Samuel H. Flowerman Memorial Lectures on December 4, 1959 in New York City. For further information, write to: Wallace Gobetz; South 51, 100 Washington Square East; New York 3, New York.

The American Group Psychotherapy Association will hold its fourth Annual Institute, stressing "The Group Therapist—His Personality, Training, and Functions," on January 27-28, 1960 and its seventeenth Annual Conference on January 29-30, 1960 in New York City. For information, write to: AGPA; Room 516; 1790 Broadway; New York 19, New York.

The Annual Meeting of the Ontario Psychological Association will be held on February 5-6, 1960 in Windsor, Ontario. For information, write to: B. R. Philip, F.S.C.; Department of Psychology, Assumption University of Windsor; Windsor, Ontario.

The American Personnel and Guidance Association will hold its Annual Convention on April 11-14, 1960 in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. For further information, write to: Carm M. Grip; Temple University; Philadelphia 22, Pennsylvania.

The fifth International Congress on Gerontology will be held on August 7-12, 1960 in San Francisco. One of the four main divisions of the congress will be devoted to research in social science and psychology. Titles and abstracts of proposed papers must be submitted by December 15, 1959 to: Clark Tibbitts; Special Staff on Aging, United States Department of Health, Education,

and Welfare; Washington 25, D. C. Inquiries regarding other aspects of the congress may be addressed to: Louis Kuplan, President; P.O. Box 2103; Sacramento 10, California.

The Social Research Committee of the International Association of Gerontology will hold an International Seminar on **Social and Psychological Aspects of Aging** in August 1960. For further information, write to: Clark Tibbitts; Special Staff on Aging, United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; Washington 25, D. C.

The thirteenth Annual Meeting of the **World Federation for Mental Health** will take place in Edinburgh, Scotland, on August 7-12, 1960. The general theme will be "Action for Mental Health." Inquiries should be addressed to: Secretary General, World Federation for Mental Health; 19 Manchester Street; London, W.1, England.

The **Second International Conference of Human Genetics** will be held at the University of Rome on September 6-12, 1961. For further information, write to: Luigi Gedda; 5 Piazza Galeno; Rome, Italy.

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*Section I (Psychology)* of the **American Association for the Advancement of Science** announces the following program for its Annual Meeting to be held in Chicago, December 28-30, 1959. All sessions will be held in the Hotel Morrison. The section is co-sponsoring with the American Psychiatric Association a two-day program on the "Roots of Behavior," December 28-29, consisting of four sessions: "Genetics of Behavior," "The Critical Period and Effects of Early Experience," "Instinctual Behavior," and "Free Ranging Non-human Primate Behavior." Three other programs have been arranged for December 29 and 30: "Verbal Learning and Meaningfulness," "Unconscious Processes," and "Brain Functions and Learning." The address of the Vice-President of Section I, Frank A. Geldard, will be given on the afternoon of December 30: "Some Neglected Possibilities of Communication." There will also be a symposium on "Aging," presented by Section N (Medical Sciences) on December 29-30. Attendance is open to all. For additional details, write to: American Association for the Advancement of Science; 1515 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W.; Washington 5, D. C.; or Secretary of Section I, Clifford T. Morgan; Department of Psychology, University of Wisconsin; Madison 6, Wisconsin.

The sixth **Interamerican Congress of Psychology** was held in Rio de Janeiro on August 16-21, 1959. Approximately 400 psychologists and psychiatrists, representing virtually every country in North and South America, attended the congress. Willard Olson of the University of Michigan represented the APA. Some 80 papers were read on various aspects of the central theme "Personality Evaluation and Human Relations." The following were elected to office in the Interamerican Society of Psychology for the period 1959-61: President—G. M. Gilbert (Long Island University); President-elect—Jose Angel Bustamante (Havana); Vice-President for North America—R. B. Malmø (McGill); Vice-President for South America—Emilio Mira y Lopez (Getulio Vargas Foundation); United States Representative—George Bennett (Psychological Corporation); Treasurer—Harold Anderson (Michigan State University). The seventh Interamerican Congress of Psychology will be held in Havana on December 26-30, 1960. The eighth congress will be held in Santiago, Chile. Inquiries concerning either congress or membership in the Interamerican Society of Psychology should be addressed to: G. M. Gilbert; Psychology Department, Long Island University; Brooklyn 1, New York.

The **International Conference on Information Processing** was held in Paris on June 15-20, 1959 under the sponsorship of UNESCO. The gathering intended to facilitate research and the exchange of information and experience in the field of computing machinery. The program included six main topics: Pattern Recognition and Learning, Methods of Digital Computing, Logical Design of Digital Computers, Common Symbolic Language for Digital Computers, Automatic Translation of Languages, and Computer Techniques of the Future. In addition there were 12 symposia on special topics and an international exhibition of data processing equipment. The importance of the meeting to psychology can be gathered from the fact that 17 of the 64 papers presented were on Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning. This topic dealt with the storage and retrieval of information, the proving of logical propositions, and pattern recognition both in humans and machines. Here the electrical engineer drew from his knowledge of computing machinery to make deductions about the human cen-



tral nervous system and then, based on these deductions, tried to build machines which could "behave," in a limited way, like humans. It is extremely stimulating, particularly to psychologists interested in perception, physiological psychology, and thinking, to hear what electronics has to contribute to the understanding of human behavior. The complete proceedings will be published by UNESCO (Place de Fontenoy; Paris-7<sup>e</sup>, France).  
—CURT FEY, *University of Pennsylvania*.

Psychologists in private practice are forming an organization. An Executive Council has been appointed with John Hall Jones as Chairman and Evelyn T. Rule (108 Blount Professional Building; Knoxville 20, Tennessee) as Secretary, to whom application to join the group should be sent. Sybil Marquit (326 N.E. 26 Street; Miami 37, Florida), who was appointed Editor of the *Newsletter*, requests contributions of interest to those in private practice.

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## Convention Calendar

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**American Psychological Association:** September 1-7, 1960; Chicago, Illinois

*For information, write to:*

Janice P. Fish  
American Psychological Association  
1333 Sixteenth Street, N.W.  
Washington 6, D. C.

**Southwestern Psychological Association:** March 24-26, 1960; Galveston, Texas

*For information, write to:*

Beatrice A. Cobb, Secretary  
Department of Psychology  
Texas Technological College  
Lubbock, Texas

**Southeastern Psychological Association:** March 30-April 2, 1960; Atlanta, Georgia

*For information, write to:*

Susan W. Gray  
Box 232  
George Peabody College for Teachers  
Nashville 12, Tennessee

**Southern Society for Philosophy and Psychology:** April 14-16, 1960; Biloxi, Mississippi

*For information, write to:*

Dan R. Kenshalo  
Florida State University  
Tallahassee, Florida

**Eastern Psychological Association:** April 15-16, 1960; New York, New York

*For information, write to:*

Carl H. Rush  
P. O. Box 252  
Glenbrook, Connecticut

**Western Psychological Association:** April 21-23, 1960; San Jose, California

*For information, write to:*

Brant Clark  
Department of Psychology  
San Jose State College  
San Jose 14, California

**Midwestern Psychological Association:** April 28-30, 1960; St. Louis, Missouri

*For information, write to:*

I. E. Farber, Secretary-Treasurer  
Midwestern Psychological Association  
Department of Psychology  
State University of Iowa  
Iowa City, Iowa

**Rocky Mountain Psychological Association:** May 5-7, 1960; Glenwood Springs, Colorado

*For information, write to:*

William H. Brown  
Department of Psychiatry  
University of Utah College of Medicine  
156 Westminister Avenue  
Salt Lake City 15, Utah

**National Society for Crippled Children and Adults:** November 29-December 3, 1959; Chicago, Illinois

*For information, write to:*

Catherine Bauer  
National Society for Crippled Children and Adults  
2023 West Ogden Avenue  
Chicago 12, Illinois

**American Association for the Advancement of Science:** December 26-31, 1959; Chicago, Illinois

*For information, write to:*

Raymond L. Taylor  
American Association for the Advancement of Science  
1515 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W.  
Washington 5, D. C.

**Inter-Society Color Council:** April 11-12, 1960; Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

*For information, write to:*

Ralph M. Evans, Secretary  
Inter-Society Color Council  
Color Technology Division, Building 65  
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review of the necessary background and experience. The types of people who are likely to apply for help are discussed. Methodology, discussions of psychotherapy and of the responsibilities of the psychologist are included. *To be published this Fall.*

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VOLUME 15

NOVEMBER, 1959

NUMBER 2

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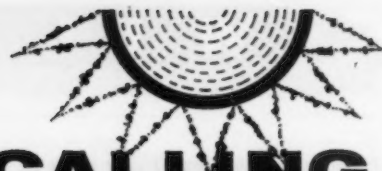
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